DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1923, No. 27

HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE

ITS EVOLUTION AND CONTRIBUTION TO EDUCATION AS A FEDERAL LAND-GRANT COLLEGE

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
WALTON C. JOHN
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT
CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 27, 1923.

DEAR MR. SECRETARY: The problem of negro education, particularly with reference to its vocational and industrial aspects, is one of increasing importance to the United States. The following study, which has been prepared under the direction of Dr. Walton C. John, of this bureau, has for its purpose to show the results of a well conceived and well supported plan of education in agriculture, mechanic arts, domestic science, and the training of teachers in these subjects.

In order that the contributions of this institution may serve to stimulate and encourage other schools engaged in a similar educational program, I recommend the publication of this bulletin.

Respectfully,

JOHN J. TIGERT,
Commissioner.

THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE.

EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTION OF HAMPTON INSTITUTE.

By WALTON C. JOHNS.

Specialist in Rural and Technical Education.

The pressure of economic development in the United States during the quarter of a century before the Civil War led to a new and definite movement for the development of scientific and industrial education. The Morrill Act, signed by President Lincoln July 2, 1862, signalized this movement and made possible the establishment of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts throughout the United States. Owing to the war only the Northern States were in a position to accept at once the provisions of the new act, but as soon as peace was established the Southern States one by one accepted its provisions. Almost from the beginning the Southern States provided for students of the negro race by an appropriate division of the Federal funds and by additional State support. In this way the negro land-grant college in the South, although largely elementary and secondary in grade during the earlier years, began to contribute to the educational and economic welfare of the colored people as well as to that of the white race.

In 1870, Hampton Institute, through an act of the Virginia State Legislature became a quasi-public institution and thus began to receive a portion of the Federal land-grant fund. Until 1920 Hampton retained this relationship with the State of Virginia and the United States. At that time the State of Virginia decided to concentrate Federal and State funds upon institutions which had been founded as strictly publicly controlled institutions. During this long period, Hampton, in addition to the Federal support, sought and gained an increasing amount of private aid. In 1874, two years after beginning to receive Federal aid, the total income of Hampton Institute was $39,726, of which $10,360, or 26 per cent, was from the Federal Government. In 1920, the year in which Hampton returned to a purely private foundation, her total income reached the sum of $458,911, of which $26,135, or 5.7 per cent, was from Federal sources. It is apparent from these figures that, notwithstanding the increase in Federal aid, the income from private

sources has come to be the principal asset and has brought the institution into a position of growing power.

The increasing prosperity of Hampton over a period of one-half a century has made possible, as far as financial support is concerned, the carrying out of policies which have fully justified themselves as manifested by the influence of the institute in its particular field. Furthermore, the institute has had the advantage of executives and teachers of large caliber who in long tenure of service have developed a stability and continuity of purpose throughout the history of the institution.

Hampton Institute has therefore developed an educational technique in several lines which is of interest especially to those institutions that are still trying to find their way under difficulties and that for lack of vision as well as lack of support are unable to reach the high ideals of training which have resulted from the careful working out of the Hampton program. In ceasing its relationship to the Federal Government, Hampton depends upon its own resources and those of its friends. Nevertheless, Hampton, in view of the long-continued Federal support, can give to the general public the benefit of a statement of her stewardship and by so doing be of great assistance to other institutions with similar problems in industrial and vocational education.

Considerable detail has been included for the benefit of those who desire to study more intimately the scope and content of work carried on in a school of this type. Notwithstanding the successes of the several departments of the institute, the members of the staff would be the last to feel that they had reached perfection. Consequently it is believed that those who are striving to develop industrial education on a higher plane will be greatly encouraged and benefited by reading these pages. Not only the land-grant colleges for the colored race, but also many of our industrial institutions for whites, need a greater vision of their work.

The following contributions aim to give briefly the growth and development of the educational practices which have led to the present program.

THE INFLUENCE OF HAMPTON.

By WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT,

Chief Justice of the United States, and President of Hampton Institute Board of Trustees.

Hampton as an educational institution presents two aspects. One is that of a place of instruction where young men and women may be taught how to use their heads and hands effectively, how to learn and how to work, how to become educated with general information and mental training, and how to apply these to labor in such a way as to make that labor effective for future use in earning a livelihood and in proving the value of the possessor as a citizen of the community in which he is to live his life.

While there were others before him in the union of study and labor in the preparation for life, General Armstrong is entitled to the great credit of making an institution of mental and physical training and applying it successfully to the rescue of a backward race from the ignorance and weakness and dependence of a state of slavery. It was one of the first great vocational and industrial training schools of this country and one of the first of the world. It demonstrated its usefulness in dealing with the most difficult material, and, without regard to its moral, racial, political, and spiritual importance, it puts General Armstrong in the first rank of progressive educational leaders in this country.

The second aspect of Hampton education is in the use of the religious spirit and the discipline of labor to make the students at Hampton real men and women, with a full sense of the difficulties they must face in struggling against the inevitable obstacles to their progress—social, racial, and political.

Armstrong taught the dignity of labor by teaching how much it could accomplish in material gain, in discipline of character, and in happiness. He taught the comfort and inspiration of real religion, and he united them all—practical learning, manual skill, the training and discipline of labor, and religious inspiration to make Hampton men and women the leaders of their race and missionaries of the gospel of practical and uplifting Christianity.

The result has demonstrated that in the principles that Armstrong taught is to be found the solution of our race problem in this country. Here is to be found the explanation of the marvelous progress which the statistics show has been made by the negro race in the half century of "up from slavery." Among the chief factors in this, so far as it represents real progress of the negro, are to be

counted Samuel C. Armstrong, Hollis B. Frissell, and the greatest and most distinguished graduate of Hampton, the founder of Tuskegee, that great American, Dr. Booker T. Washington.

The Hampton of to-day in material growth is far beyond what Armstrong left it. There is a great plant on an inlet of Chesapeake Bay and there is a handsome endowment, not large enough for all the purposes of the institution, but one far beyond the dreams of the founder.

The influence of Hampton upon its students is one of the most striking instances of personal inspiration that the writer has ever seen. Each year a company of men and women deeply interested in the cause of negro education and uplift meet at Hampton's commencement and drink into their souls the spirit that the atmosphere and the environment and the attitude of the students and faculty give.

Hampton is a place for pessimists to visit that they may be cured of their unhappy state of mind. It is a place for materialists to go that their hearts may be opened and that they may be taught the value of unselfish help to others in securing happiness for the helper. It is a place for statesmen to visit in order that there may be revealed to them a way of creating citizens who shall strengthen a State. It is a place for him who would seek evidences of the great moral return to this country from the sacrifices of the Civil War to find them at Hampton in palpable form. It is a place for the southern white man, anxious for the promotion of his section of the country, to go that he may realize, as so many of his fellows now do, how essential and how possible it is to make his black fellow citizens of the fair South a source of profit, of peace, of law and order, and of general community happiness.

Upon the southern white man depends the solution of the race problem, and one of the hopeful signs is his growing interest in the method of solving it at Hampton and Tuskegee and the other great negro educational institutions of the South.

For these reasons it is that a description of Hampton and its working should be given conspicuous importance and place in a bulletin of education issued by the National Government.

HISTORY AND EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY.

JAMES E. GREGG.
Principal, Hampton Institute.

The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute came into being in 1868. From March, 1872, to December, 1920, it was the so-called "land-grant college" for the negroes of Virginia, the institution that

is designated by act of the general assembly of the Commonwealth to receive that portion of the revenue of the land-grant fund and the supplementary Morrill-Nelson appropriation allotted for the education of negro students in agriculture and the mechanic arts.

In 1920 this designation was transferred to the Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute at Petersburg, a State-supported and State-controlled institution.

In 1867 the American Missionary Association, a religious and educational organization, representing chiefly the constituency of the Congregational Churches of New England, adopted the urgent suggestion of Gen. Samuel Chapman Armstrong that a "normal school" be established among the negroes on the Virginia Peninsula. The association authorized for this purpose the purchase of the Wood farm, also known as "Little Scotland," the site recommended by him.

GENERAL ARMSTRONG ELECTED PRINCIPAL.

During the Civil War the association had established a number of elementary schools in the Hampton neighborhood, but it was evident that an institution of higher grade was also needed.

General Armstrong, who in March, 1866, had become district agent for 10 counties of eastern Virginia of the Federal "Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands," had not expected to be principal of the new school, but, as he said, "only to help."

The man originally chosen by the American Missionary Association for the post declined, however, and it was offered to Armstrong, who consented to take it as an addition to his other responsibilities. The school attracted him because it embodied a recurrent dream which he had had, particularly when serving with negro troops on the Gulf coast in 1865.

General Armstrong was also reminded of the manual-labor school at Hilo, on the Island of Maui, where his parents, who were missionaries, had lived, and where he had grown up: and he felt confident that some such school as this could be made of the greatest usefulness in lifting the negroes out of the ignorance and helplessness in which slavery had left them.

THE AIM OF THE INSTITUTE STATED.

Said General Armstrong at a later date:

> Till then my own future had been blind; it had only been clear that there was a work to do for the ex-slaves. * * * The thing to be done was clear; to train selected negro youth who should go out and teach and lead their people, first by example, by getting land and homes; to give them not a dollar that they could earn for themselves; to teach respect for labor; to replace stupid drudgery with skilled hands; and to these ends to build up an industrial system, for the sake not only of self-support and intelligent labor, but also for the sake of character.

On April 15, 1868, the school was opened with 2 teachers and 15 pupils. In his first report to the trustees, presented in 1870, General Armstrong says:

> There are two objective points before us, toward one or the other of which all our energies must soon be directed as the final work of this institute. One is the training of the intellect, storing it with the largest amount of knowledge, producing the brightest examples of culture. The other is the more difficult one of attempting to educate in the original and broadest sense of the word, to *draw out* a complete manhood. The former is a laborious but simple work. The latter is full of difficulty. It is not easy to surround the student with a perfectly balanced system of influences. The value of every good appliance is limited, and ceases when not perfectly adjusted to the higher end. The needle, the broom, and the washtub, the awl, the plane, and the plow become the allies of the globe, the blackboard, and the textbook.
>
> The course of study does not run smoothly. There is action and reaction, depression and delight; but the reserve forces of character no longer lie dormant. They make the rough places smooth. The school becomes a drill ground for future work; it sends *men* and *women* rather than scholars into the world.

In 1870 the institute was granted a charter by the General Assembly of Virginia, which made it independent of any society or religious denomination, and the entire property was transferred by deed to its trustees from the American Missionary Association.

The association and the Freedmen's Bureau gave generous financial aid to the establishment of the new school, particularly for the purchase of the land and the putting up of the first buildings; but from 1872 onward the institute was supported almost entirely by funds derived from other sources. The churches and individual friends in the North, whom General Armstrong visited with tireless diligence in behalf of his enterprise, proved especially generous and steadfast in their aid, and a partial endowment was slowly gathered.

The material equipment of Hampton Institute was greatly increased, and all its earlier gains were, so to speak, consolidated, with remarkable success, by Dr. Hollis Burke Frissell, the second principal, who, after 13 years' service as chaplain, succeeded General Armstrong upon the latter's death in 1893 and carried the responsibilities of administration, guidance, interpretation of policies to outsiders, with innumerable concomitant tasks, until his own death in 1917. If General Armstrong was the *founder* of Hampton Institute, Doctor Frissell is deservedly called its *builder*.

PRESENT EQUIPMENT AND WORK.

The result of the labors of these men and of many more who might be named is seen in Hampton Institute as it is at the present time. The little school of 2 teachers and 15 pupils has grown into one enrolling over 2,300 students (including the Whittier training school,

the summer school, the ministers' conference, and the farmers' conference), with an instructing staff of 150 or more. Its two farms—Whipple and Shellbanks—comprise 913 acres. The campus includes 75 acres more. There are three buildings devoted to recitation rooms and laboratories, besides the Shellbanks farm school; the main and auxiliary buildings of the trade school; six dormitories for young men and five for young women; an administration building; the memorial church; an assembly hall seating 2,000; a commodious library of 48,000 volumes with a circulation, in 1920, of 17,345; a museum possessing 2,000 articles; and 67 cottages occupied by members of the staff and their families.

The institute proper (not including the Whittier training school, the summer school, or the minsters' and farmers' conferences), in the year 1921–22, enrolled 868, of whom 34 were disabled soldiers sent by the Federal Board for Vocational Education for special short courses designed to fit them for self-support and usefulness in civil life.

Apart from these ex-soldiers, there are 515 young men and 319 young women, divided among the preparatory class (eighth grade); the academy; the trade school, in which blacksmithing, bricklaying and plastering, carpentry, cabinetmaking, automobile mechanics, machine work, painting, printing, tailoring, steamfitting and plumbing, and wheelwrighting are taught; the normal school; the home-economics school; the business school; and the agricultural school. These four latter schools carry their students two years—and, in the case of the agricultural school, three years—beyond the secondary course of the academy.

Many boys and girls take their first year in "the work class," working with their hands by day on the farms, in the shops, offices, kitchens, and elsewhere, and going to classes in the evening. By this means they pay their way, accumulate a fund of savings for the following year, and gain a valuable training in industry, thoroughness, obedience, punctuality, neatness, courtesy, and other fundamental virtues.

WORK OF THE HANDS HAS DISCIPLINARY VALUE.

General Armstrong's outstanding principle was that work with the hands is of high disciplinary value, physically, intellectually, morally. Doubtless this idea was not original with him; but he so emphasized, explained, and illustrated it that it may be justly regarded as his distinctive contribution to educational philosophy. Thus the threefold discipline of "head, heart, and hand," of the mind, the conscience, and the will, has become the concise statement of the Hampton-Tuskegee type of training for life.

The plan of requiring or at least of permitting students to do a part of the routine labor of their school was certainly not new. Oberlin, Mount Holyoke, and other northern institutions were familiar with it. Armstrong, however, perceived the mistake of looking upon this handwork as merely an irksome necessity. At Hampton he turned it to glorious gain; and did not hesitate to declare his conviction that this is regularly possible. "The moral advantages of industrial training over all other methods," he wrote in 1872, "justify the expense."

In 1892 he wrote:

> The manual-labor system was made fundamental here from the first for its own sake, with full conviction of its value in the symmetrical development of the individual or the race, and with readiness to sacrifice to this the necessary per cent of mere mental culture.

Again:

> Character is the best outcome of the labor system. * * * It is not cheap, but it pays.

Again:

> Honestly given value for value, labor becomes a stepping-stone, a ladder, to education, to all higher things, to success, manhood, and character.

Still again:

> Labor, next to the grace of God in the heart, is the greatest prompter of morality, the greatest power for civilization.

The comment of an educational expert of high authority is worth noting on the relation of labor to civilization. Prof. Paul H. Hanus, in the first chapter of his "Survey of Hampton Institute," made for the General Education Board in 1917, writes:

> The negro race still feels the influence of slavery. Too many negroes regard work with the hands as beneath the dignity of free men. Fundamentally wrong as this notion of such work is, it is still firmly and widely held. Accordingly, it offers a frequent and troublesome obstacle to the development of the right kind of training, particularly agricultural and industrial training, in the negro schools of the South.

WORK IS THE FOUNDATION OF ALL WELFARE.

Hampton sets its face squarely against this mistaken notion and substitutes for it the proper conception of work as the foundation of all welfare, spiritual as well as material. It aims to arouse and develop in its students an appreciation of the dignity and practical value of intelligently performed manual labor; to do this, not by precept, but by directed work with the hands; to cultivate in them through work and study the self-respect that is the natural concomitant of trained ability to be useful in a skilled vocation.

Students at work under the direction of officers and teachers are, accordingly, everywhere in evidence. The whole institute—buildings, shops, laundry, kitchens, offices, farms, and gardens—is to a large extent utilized as a laboratory in which "the virtues of work" may be acquired, and the satisfaction afforded by work well done may be habitually experienced.

ALL WORK MUST BE DIRECTED BY INTELLIGENCE.

But work with the hands as an educational instrument must not be mere manual labor, or even mere mechanical skill, important as this last is. Such work must be directed by intelligence. Practice in handicrafts must be accompanied by such a study of the practice that it is shot through with significance. The sciences, mathematics, and drawing that underlie the practice of the machinist, the farmer, and the home maker, must be drawn upon so as to give real insight into the scope and the details of the work done; and the relation of any one practical art to the others as a part of the total work whereby society keeps itself going must be made apparent. To that end the institute causes its students to study books, and makes use of instruction and other means of intellectual guidance to give the workers an understanding of their work. The less conspicuous intellectual work of the classroom, therefore, accompanies the more conspicuous work with the hands; so that the workman may be enabled to work with understanding; and, what is equally important, with the abiding interest that such understanding develops. The fact that this educational work has a commercial value contributes an element of great importance to the student's appreciation of its significance, and his interest in it.

Closely connected with the discipline of handwork is the discipline of the fully occupied day. This has been compared by Dr. Talcott Williams to the unslackening program of "prayer, work, and reading," which prevailed in the medieval monasteries of northern Europe and undoubtedly had much to do with their civilizing efficiency.

CHARACTER THE AIM.

Armstrong's theory of education lays constant emphasis on character. "The education needed is one that touches upon the whole range of life, that aims at the formation of good habits and sound principles."

The question with the negroes is not one of special proficiency, of success in one direction—the pursuit of knowledge—but of success all around. It is one of morals, industry, self-restraint; of power to organize society, to draw social lines between the decent and the indecent, to form public sentiment that shall support pure morals, and to show common sense in the relations of life.

I think we may reasonably hope to build * * *, an institution that will aid freedmen to escape from the difficulties that surround them, by affording the best possible agency for their improvement in mind and heart, by sending out, not pedagogues, but those whose culture shall be upon the whole circle of living, and who, with clear insight and strong purpose, will do a quiet work that shall make the land purer and better.

To this day this purpose has been maintained. Hampton men and women are expected to go out as true servants and leaders of their people: and, therefore, it is understood that they must be morally trustworthy. Dishonesty, uncleanness, viciousness of any sort can not be tolerated. Yet patience must be shown toward those who are willing but slow to learn better ways than those in which they have been brought up. General Armstrong said: "Habits can not be reversed at once like a steam engine. It takes time, and in time it can be done."

MEN AND WOMEN TRAINED FOR COMMUNITY SERVICE.

The expression of character in daily work is strikingly brought out by Professer Hanus in his survey:

> Whatever else character means, it certainly means the intention and the ability to do well whatever work one has to do. Hence, the kind of service that a woman renders in the home, or that a man renders as a plumber, machinist, farmer, or in business activities both suggests their ideals of conduct and shows the extent to which their performances square with their ideals—that is, the kind of work one does reveals his character. As a man works, so is he.
>
> A man who is industrious, intelligent, and skillful challenges the respect and confidence of his fellow men. Accustomed to painstaking labor to make his resources for usefulness effective, he is self-reliant and independent; but his self-reliance and independence are tempered with modesty. The quality of service a man renders in his vocation, therefore, suggests to his fellow men the quality of extra-vocational community service he might render. It thus becomes the means of establishing significant relations for cooperative service with his fellow men. To equip every graduate for community service on the basis of such relations is one of Hampton's most important aims.

From the beginning the graduates of the institute have been expected to be self-supporting, self-respecting, and, in the presence of others who need help, self-forgetting. To regard their education as something given to them in trust, as something to be taken back to their home communities or to others equally deserving of aid and there applied for the common good—this is the purpose with which two generations of Hampton men and women, over ten thousand in all, have been sent forth.

COMMUNITY NEEDS ARE MET.

This responsibility for meeting actual community needs rather than individual demands for personal culture has been felt and acknowledged again and again in the organization of the courses of study. When General Armstrong, against the advice and the wishes of some, if not of most, of his counselors, boldly insisted on leaving out Latin and Greek from his curriculum, and devoting the attention of his teachers and pupils to "an English course, embracing reading and elocution, geography, mathematics, history, the sciences, the study of the mother tongue and its literature, the leading principles of mental and moral science, and of political economy," he was simply giving his boys and girls what they most needed, with their manual training, in order to make them most serviceable to their people. He was not following the educational fashions of the time, or seeking to make Hampton Institute like any other school in the United States, but merely to give its young men and young women the kind of training that would best fit them for actual life.

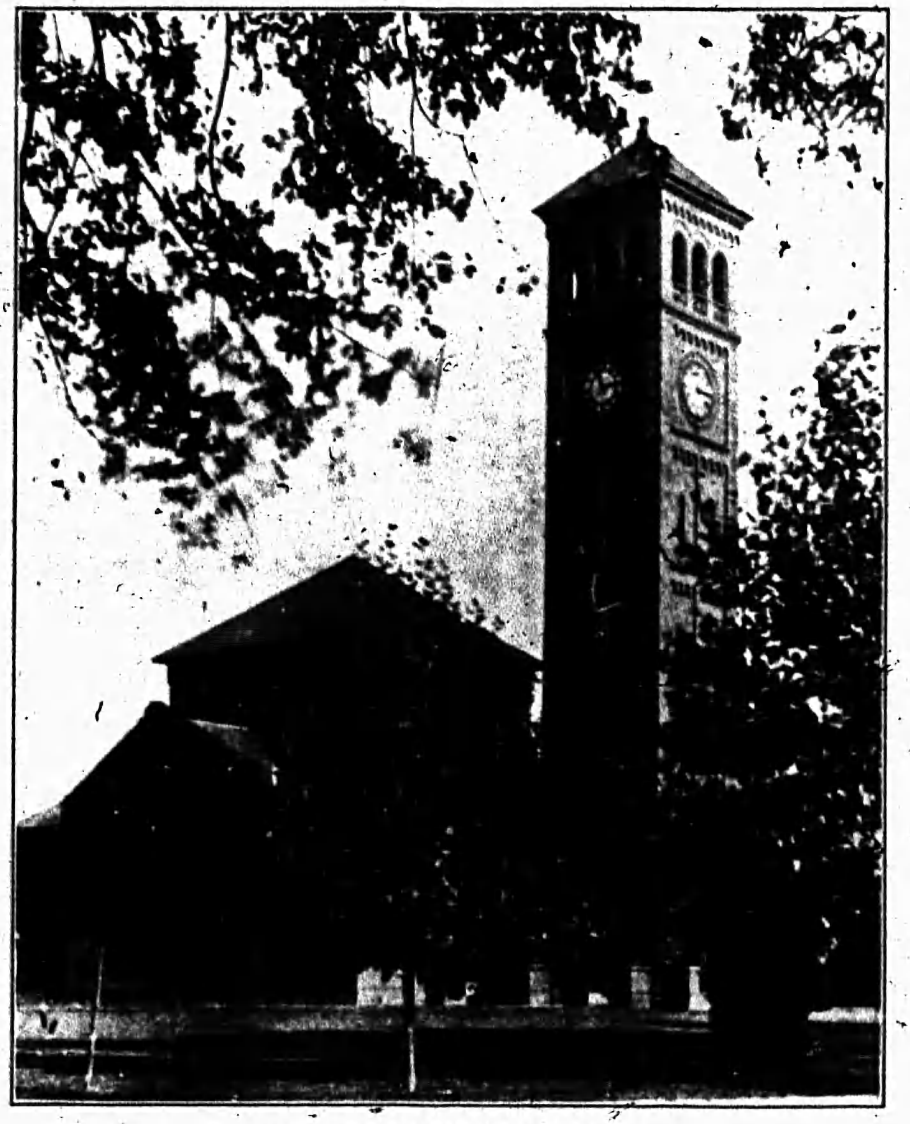
For the same reason the institute is at the present time raising certain of its courses from secondary to semicollegiate and even col-

A. THE COLLIS P. HUNTINGTON LIBRARY.

This library contains about 50,000 volumes.

B. THE ROBERT C. OGDEN AUDITORIUM.

This auditorium accommodates 2,500 people and it cost about $200,000.



THE MEMORIAL CHURCH.

A gift of the Frederick Marquand estate, through Mr. E. B. Monroe, of the board of trustees, and Mrs. Monroe.

legiate levels. The conditions and the needs of the people have changed. Hampton Institute must change accordingly.

Finally, this sketch of the history and the guiding principles of Hampton Institute would be seriously inadequate if it did not frankly recognize the religious quality of its influence.

"Hampton Institute is essentially a spiritual enterprise, conceived as a form of missionary service," says Doctor Peabody. There is no getting away from this fact.

The Christian motive, in the fullness of its breadth and depth and power, is the driving force, the spirit in the wheels of the school's machinery. Its work is carried on, necessarily, in an atmosphere of reverence, faith, hope, and love. Its teachers agree with Armstrong that "it pays to put God and country first, ourselves afterwards." Its students strive to become not only skillful workmen and keen scholars, but also, and even more, good men and women, honest, courteous, gentle, patient, brave, truthful in word and deed; qualified for intelligent happiness, for honorable citizenship, for leadership in service.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION.

WILLIAM H. SCOVILLE,

Secretary, Hampton Institute.

The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute is a privately supported institution, organized under a charter which was granted by the Elizabeth City County of Virginia on September 21, 1868, and later incorporated under an act of the General Assembly of the State of Virginia, which was approved on June 4, 1870.

Under its corporate name, "The Trustees of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute," its rights, privileges, and duties are as follows:

To possess or buy or sell land or other property—"provided the real estate owned shall not exceed at any one time 1,200 acres"; and among the other usual duties of trustees:

To choose "by ballot a president, secretary, treasurer, and such officers, teachers, or agents as it shall deem necessary and to remove the same at pleasure, two-thirds of a quorum concurring in said removal";

To fix salaries and duties of officers and teachers;

To fill vacancies in the board of trustees;

To suspend or amend any by-laws by two-thirds vote of the trustees present at any meeting duly called;

To be exempt from taxation so long as other institutions of learning in Virginia are exempt;

To report to the governor or State superintendent of education upon request;

To make contracts and in general to manage the affairs of the institution.

The object of the institute is:

The instruction of youth in the various common school, academic, and collegiate branches, the best methods of teaching the same and the best mode of practical industry in its application to agriculture and the mechanic arts; and, for the carrying out of these purposes, the said trustees may establish any departments or schools in the said institution.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

As incorporated, the institute is owned and controlled by a self-perpetuating board of trustees, which, serving without compensation and meeting at least once a year and possessed of a common seal, is entitled under the name of "The Trustees of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute," to the rights, privileges, and duties stated above.

The board is organized as follows:

(*a*) *Members.*—Not less than 9 nor more than 17. Five members may call a meeting. Five members constitute a quorum.

(*b*) *Officers.*—President, two vice presidents, secretary, and treasurer. Elected at the annual meeting of the board of trustees, the officers "shall hold office until their successors are elected, unless previously removed in accordance with law, and shall perform the duties indicated by the titles of their respective offices."

(*c*) *Committees.*—(1) Executive committee: The executive committee, elected annually by the board, is composed of not less than 6 nor more than 8 trustees, together with the president of the board, the principal of the institute, and the treasurer.

It "shall have the immediate supervision of the institute, and the care of its property, and shall superintend the execution of the plans and resolutions of the trustees." It may fill vacancies temporarily in its own committee and in the staff of the institute and shall report its proceedings annually to the board.

In executing any plans that may have been approved by the trustees it—

shall not involve the corporation in an indebtedness exceeding $5,000 on any single transaction, nor exceeding $15,000 in the aggregate in any fiscal year, which amount it is authorized to borrow in the name of the corporation, pledging the securities of the institution therefor; but it may expend any funds coming into the treasury for a specific purpose in accordance with plans already approved by the board for that purpose. Three members shall constitute a quorum.

It has authority to call the annual or special meetings of the board, notices to be sent three weeks in advance.

(2) Investment committee: The investment committee elected annually by the board is composed of four trustees together "with the president and treasurer of the board."

The president shall be chairman, or in his absence he may designate a vice president to act as chairman of the committee, and the trustees shall name one of the members to be secretary and treasurer of the committee. The committee may fill any vacancies that may occur in its membership or offices. The committee has full power to make or change investments of the corporation funds and to execute all documents and legal papers concerning same.

The treasurer of the committee and the treasurer of the institute shall have the custody of the seal of the institute, and the signature of either shall be a sufficient receipt for property or funds for the corporation.

The signature of any two members of the committee shall constitute a sufficient signature against any funds, which funds shall be deposited to the credit of the committee in such depositary as they may select.

The securities belonging to the institute shall be deposited in the vaults of some well-known and secure safe deposit company in the City of New York, access to which shall be had by any two members of the committee together, or with some trust company in the City of New York having a capital and surplus of not less than two million dollars, subject to an agreement providing for access and assuring the responsibility of the trust company for the safe care and return of the securities and the collection of coupons as they shall mature.

(3) Standing committee: The standing committee, appointed annually by the president of the board, is composed of five trustees who shall visit and report yearly or oftener as they think best on the state of the institution. This committee has not been appointed for several years.

THE PRINCIPAL.

The principal is the active, executive head of the institute and is elected by the board to serve permanently, subject to removal by a two-thirds vote of a quorum of that body. He has always been elected a trustee by the board and serves on its executive committee.

As principal, as well as chairman of the administrative board and faculty, he is in close touch with all departments of the institute and keeps the executive committee and board informed of its needs and condition.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE BOARD.

The administrative board of 18 members is described in by-law 6 as follows:

There shall be an administrative board of the institute, consisting of the principal, the vice principal, the lady principal, the commandant, the treasurer, the secretary, the chaplain, the director of the normal school, the director of the agricultural school, the director of the trade school, the director of the business school, the director of the home economics school, the director of extension work, the field secretary, and the publication secretary, together

with such other officers and teachers as shall be elected by the board to its membership and approved by the trustees. The administrative board shall be directly responsible for the general conduct of the institute, and it shall keep a record of its proceedings subject to the inspection of the trustees.

The administrative board is the chief legislative group of the institute. Its members meet every Tuesday morning and discuss and pass on matters dealing with students, individually or collectively, and with institute policies.

While matters of distinctly school policy are settled by the faculties of the five separate schools, final decisions in discipline, etc., and larger matters affecting two or more schools, or the institute as a whole, are brought before the administrative board.

THE FACULTY.

The faculty of 117 members is thus described by by-law 6:

The faculty of the institute shall consist of the members of the administrative board, together with such heads of departments, teachers, and other workers as shall be chosen by the administrative board. The faculty shall consider questions of general interest in the affairs of the institute, particularly those relating to the courses of study, leaving to the administrative board final decision in matters of large importance.

Meeting once a month, the faculty is as yet a deliberative and consultative rather than a legislative group.

THE BUSINESS COMMITTEE.

The business committee, a permanent committee established by the principal in 1903 as an executive committee to relieve the administrative board of purely business and physical maintenance matters, has both legislative and executive functions, subject, however, in larger matters to the approval of the administrative board or the trustees, as the case may be. It meets on Mondays and Fridays and has four members, the treasurer, who is the chairman, the superintendent of roads and grounds, the superintendent of construction, and the secretary.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS OF THE INSTITUTE.

The duties of the administrat ve officers of the institute, all of whom, except the chaplain emeritus and superintendent of construction, are members of the administrative board, are as follows:

The principal, the executive head of the institute, is directly responsible for its administration to the board of trustees. He is chairman of the administrative board and faculty and represents the institute before the public. As a trustee himself and as a member of the executive committee, the principal is the main connection between the board of trustees and the institute.

The vice principal is the director of the summer school, editor of the catalogue and in charge of the application office, scholarship bureau, and lectures and entertainments. He also coordinates the work and relations of the five schools and is active in preparing the programs for anniversary and commencement.

The lady principal is directly responsible for the girls. She has charge of their dormitories and hospital, as well as the students' dining rooms and kitchen, the diet kitchen, and laundry; also of the teachers' home, teachers' kitchen, Holly Tree Inn kitchen, industrial sewing room, and much of the entertainment of school guests.

The commandant is directly responsible for the boys and their discipline, dormitories, hospital, and brass band. The general duty squad and guards report to him, and he is chief of the fire department.

The treasurer is responsible for the receipt and disbursement of all funds of the institute, the investment committee, however, having charge of the investment of funds. As chairman of the business committee, the treasurer is business manager of the institute and as member of the executive committee has direct connection with the board of trustees.

The Holly Tree Inn, restaurant, post office, store, commissary, meat market, power plant, electrical, dental, and optical departments are under his immediate control.

The secretary of the board of trustees is also secretary of the administrative board, the faculty, and the business committee and has charge of their minutes and the records of the institute. He is responsible for the general institute mail.

The chaplain is in charge of the religious work of the institute. He preaches on Sundays, is superintendent of the Sunday school and teaches Bible classes, besides having general oversight of the Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, missionary work, and daily prayers.

The director of the normal school is also in charge of the academy, Whittier and Shellbanks schools. The courses in manual training, applied arts, music, and physical training are also in his jurisdiction.

In addition to the educational duties connected with his school, the director of the agricultural school is actively engaged in the management of Whipple farm, Shellbanks farm, the creamery, horticulture department, and the greenhouses. He also promotes farmers' conferences and agricultural extension work.

Besides his school duties, the director of the trade school, like the director of the agricultural school, is active in the general oversight

of the productive side of the 11 trades which are taught in the trade school.

Both the agricultural and trade schools are productive as well as educational.

The directors of the business school and the home economics school are at present closely confined to the organization and educational matters of their comparatively new schools.

The director of extension work visits personally and arranges for members of the institute staff to visit schools and Hampton graduates in the field. He studies the home conditions of the Hampton students as well as the needs and conditions of the communities and schools to which its graduates will go. His main objects are to find out how the institute may best meet the needs in the field and to improve the quality of its student body.

The field secretary arranges meetings and campaigns, not only to raise funds for Hampton, but even more specifically to arouse interest in the North for the institute and the whole negro question.

The publication secretary is in close touch with over 800 of the best papers of the country, both North and South. He represents the institute at many meetings and conferences and spreads the story of Hampton and the negro throughout the whole nation.

These three officers, the director of extension work, the field secretary, and the publication secretary, mutually aid each other in the interpretation of Hampton Institute to the press and to the people both North and South.

The instructor of military science, who commands the junior unit of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps at Hampton Institute, is also a member of the administrative board and faculty.

The superintendent of roads and grounds has charge of the roads and lawns and does all grading on the place. He is a member of the administrative board, the faculty, and the business committee.

The institute physician looks after the health of the students and is in charge of the boys' and girls' hospitals. He is a member of the administrative board and the faculty.

The superintendent of construction has general oversight of all buildings on the place and orders all necessary repairs. He also draws the plans for minor additions and improvements to institute buildings and represents the architects and business committee in supervising the construction of new buildings. He is a member of the faculty and the business committee.

SEMI-INDEPENDENT DEPARTMENTS.

The publication and photographic departments, the negro and Indian record offices, the library, and the museum do not come im-

mediately under the supervision of any of the above main divisions of the institute. Though more or less under the administrative board and business committee they report to the principal.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

Standing committees are appointed at the beginning of each school year to carry out the details of administration. With very few exceptions they are composed of members of the administrative board and the faculty; and the chairmen of the committees, excepting the church, exhibits, public programs, and publications, are members of the administrative board.

The standing committees are as follows:

Anniversary and commencement.
Athletic.
Business.
Campaign.
Church (board of deacons).
Entertainments and holidays.
Exhibits.
Extension advisory committee.
Library.
Missionary work.
Ogden Hall.
Public programs.
Publications.
R. O. T. C.
Scholarships.
The "Student."
Summer school social committee.
Sunday school.
Y. M. C. A. advisory committee.
Y. W. C. A. advisory committee.

SUMMARY OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION.

In brief, the title and ultimate authority of Hampton Institute is vested in the board of trustees.

The administrative board is its legislative body, whose members, including the administrative officers and directors of the schools, carry on the affairs of the institute under the principal, who, as chairman of both the administrative board and the faculty, and as member of the board of trustees, is the executive head of the institute. The principal is the institute's spokesman before the board of trustees and represents the institute to the general public.

The faculty is the large deliberative body of the institute.

The executive and investment committee look after details for the board of trustees, while the 20 standing committees do a similar work for the institute.

FINANCIAL HISTORY.

FRANK K. ROGERS,
Treasurer, Hampton Institute.

The buildings which belong to Hampton Institute number about 140, including 65 dwellings used by officers and teachers. The more important buildings are mainly of brick, and for some of the earlier

and larger ones the bricks were made on the place by the students. Many of the buildings were erected by student labor. The policy of the school at present is to continue this process and to undertake as far as possible all repairs of brickwork, plastering, steamfitting, plumbing, and other work by student labor.

The land, about 1,000 acres in addition to the campus, includes two farms, the largest of which is Shellbanks, 3½ miles distant, which comprises 800 acres used as a dairy farm. The smaller, Whipple farm, is adjacent to the campus and is used for demonstration purposes in connection with the agricultural school, and its products are used by the institute.

The fixed equipment includes the water mains, sewer lines, salt-water hydrant system, fire engines, fire pumps, boilers, steam lines, etc. The school operates its own electric light and power plant and ice plant.

The buildings of the institute comprise dormitories for boys and girls, a commodious library, an auditorium seating 2,500 people, a church, general administration building, hotel, club house for teachers, gymnasium, academy and normal school, agricultural and home economics schools (one building), and trade school.

The endowment is largely made up of legacies, it having been the policy from the early days of the school to add even unrestricted bequests to this permanent fund. These gifts no doubt represent the capitalization in many cases of regular annual gifts made during the lifetime of the donors.

Increase of Hampton Institute endowment by years.—1872–1876, $52,369; 1880, $2,020; 1890, $11,736; 1900, $163,189; 1910, $469,970; 1918–1920, $536,541; total, 1872–1920, $3,879,695.

Income and expenditure for general purposes.[1]

Year.	General donations.	Annual scholarships.	Endowment income.	Land-grant Morrill-Nelson funds.	Total income.	Total expenditure.
1868–1871	$136,419.85				$136,419.85	$61,283.28
1880	16,379.43	$16,160.25	$4,228.60	$5,164.68	41,932.96	35,125.70
1890	67,025.66	27,566.61	8,649.70	10,329.36	113,571.33	87,439.69
1900	59,537.52	34,593.37	35,336.19	18,662.69	148,129.77	154,070.06
1910	105,343.36	35,980.29	86,608.59	23,662.69	251,594.93	225,566.56
1920	140,664.82	47,264.22	222,949.91	26,996.02	437,874.97	405,696.43
Total for all years from 1868–1920	3,184,675.23	1,474,176.23	2,472,039.25	852,391.41	7,983,282.12	7,708,541.56

[1] For the purpose of brevity yearly data are omitted, with the exception of the several decade years.

Cost of Hampton Institute plant.

Year.	Buildings.	Land and land improvements.	Fixed equipment.	Total.
1869–1871[1]	$56,620	$19,000		$75,620
1872–1880	152,839	21,607	$3,363	177,810
1881–1890	300,170	9,708	60,270	370,148
1891–1900	192,101	23,950	56,936	272,987
1901–1910	448,288	42,504	119,103	610,894
1911–1920	650,433	85,558	157,645	893,637
1921	55,096	9,548	6,381	71,025
Total, 1869–1921	1,855,547	211,875	403,698	2,471,120

[1] Early years, 1868–1871, incomplete.

Gifts for Hampton Institute plant.

Year.	Buildings.	Land.	Fixed equipment and unrestricted.	Total.
1868–1873[1]		$28,500		$28,500
1874–1880	$90,523	6,000		96,523
1881–1890	234,525	8,064	$47,742	290,331
1891–1900	238,133	16,650	3,147	257,931
1901–1910	289,130		95,383	384,523
1911–1920	547,269	3,000	138,660	688,929
1921	36,599		15,000	45,599
Total, 1868–1921	1,430,179	62,214	299,942	[2]1,792,336

[1] Early years, 1868–1873, incomplete.
[2] Deficiency of income for permanent improvements and land has been provided from excess of income.

Summary of Hampton Institute endowment funds, June 30, 1921.

General endowment	$3,242,563
Permanent scholarship fund	339,259
Carl Schurz endowment fund	15,000
Andrew memorial endowment fund	50,000
Bishop McVicker fund	11,220
Morris K. Jesup fund	25,000
Russell Sage fund	25,000
Anonymous (H. B. T. fund)	15,100
Phelps-Stokes fund	2,000
Charles D. Presho fund	8,900
Library endowment fund	1,200
Julia P. Marquand fund	11,000
Robert R. Proudfit fund	25
George Law fund	5,000
J. S. W. fund	1,000
Eli Whitney Blake museum endowment fund	$5,000
Edna Dow Cheney fund	6,685
Isaphene Hillhouse fund	5,000
Alexander Moss White fund	50,000
William W. Smith fund	5,000
Moses Kimball fund	5,000
Harriet Rose Lee fund	400
Hollis B. Frissell memorial fund	1,250
Josephine E. Richards book fund	625
Ogden Hall maintenance fund	25,000
Club house endowment fund	23,466
Total	3,879,695
Retirement fund	37,023

RECORD OFFICE.

MYRTILLA J. SHERMAN,

In Charge of Record Office, Hampton Institute.

Every student on entering Hampton is given a personal interview in which is obtained a sketch of his life from his birth until his arrival at the school. In this sketch is included a description of his home and family. Even the names, ages, education, location, and occupation of his brothers and sisters are called for. This material is later put upon one side of an 8 by 10 inch biography card.

When a student leaves Hampton we have on the one card the story of his life from his birth until his departure.

On entrance each student's photograph is taken and mounted on the left side of the Hampton record. If he graduates, his class picture is mounted at the right. Most striking is the development indicated by the contrasting photographs as well as by the yearly record columns.

A CHRISTMAS LETTER WAS SENT TO 5,000 HAMPTONIANS.

When a student leaves, whether as a graduate or not, we try to keep in touch with him at least once a year. We send a Christmas letter to every one whose address we have. If we do not know the present location of anyone, we send the letter to his home to be forwarded.

The letter aims to be as personal as is possible, considering the fact that it is to be read by thousands of men and women.

With the Christmas letter we send an inquiry sheet with the earnest request that everyone who receives the questionnaire return it promptly with the information that the questionnaire calls for. While all Hamptonians do not see the necessity of filling out that particular paper, yet it is the chief source of our knowledge as to what our former students are doing. Some Hampton men and women write letters instead; others call; while many do not answer every year.

We often find that these seeming delinquents are just as loyal to Hampton and appreciate the letter as much as do those who are more regular in responding.

Including over 2,000 graduates, we have sent out about 10,000 negro students. Last December the Christmas letter went to more than 5,000 of these men and women. Of more than 1,600 living graduates, there are at present only 53 on our "lost list."

ALL STUDENTS' RECORDS CLOSELY FOLLOWED.

In our address files, one for graduates and the other for former students, is recorded all the information that comes to us, whether

directly or indirectly. Every graduate has a card on which is entered each year any information received *directly from him*—his residence address, his temporary or business address, if any, his occupation, the year, and above it B, L, or C, according to whether he has filled out his inquiry sheet or blank, has written a letter, or has called.

When a graduate leaves, a blue slip is made, which gives his full home address and the name and address of his parent or guardian. This slip is kept in front of his card until he fills out an inquiry sheet. It is then put in another file from which it can be gotten later on if necessary.

Much information about our graduates is obtained through others. Such information is put upon a white slip, with date and source of information, and kept in front of the card until we hear from the person himself. The white slip is then withdrawn and put in the weeded-out file.

The same system is pursued in the case of former students, except that no card is made until we hear directly from the individual.

PRESENT LOCATION OF STUDENTS FOLLOWED.

Along with and corresponding to the names in the address files, we have over 5,000 small location cards, arranged according to States, with special subdivisions in the case of large towns and cities. The Virginia cards are also subdivided according to counties.

We have also a similar location file for every student in school, and another similar file for all those who have left Hampton. It differs from the one already described in this respect: The cards are filed according to the places from which the students entered Hampton and not according to their location at latest accounts.

INSTITUTE HELP TO GRADUATES AND FORMER STUDENTS.

It is the duty of the record office to respond to all requests for workers and if possible to recommend suitable persons for the positions offered. It is also its duty to answer all inquiries concerning our former students, and to furnish their school record, if they desire to enter other institutions or to secure certificates as teachers.

In the case of Indian students the system which has already been described is in general followed. Owing to circumstances, it differs in a few minor respects.

Such in outline is the work of the record office. I would not, however, close this brief statement without mentioning the hundreds of letters from our Hampton men and women, which it is such a privilege to receive and a pleasure to answer, and also the frequent calls from those who come to see us, sometimes after an absence of many years.

Enrollment of Negroes and Indians, 1869–1922.

Year.	Negroes.	Indians.	Total.	Year.	Negroes.	Indians.	Total.
1869	[1] 66	.....	[1] 66	1900	531	124	655
1870	[1] 75	.....	[1] 75	1910	780	74	854
1878	308	15	323	1920	870	21	891
1879	254	66	320	1921	812	23	835
1880	286	68	354	1922	844	29	863
1890	559	133	692				

[1] Unofficial figure.

Negro and Indian graduates.

Year	Negro.	Indian.	Total.	Year.	Negro.	Indian.	Total.
1871	19	.....	19	1920	62	1	63
1880	38	.....	38	1921	83	1	84
1881	41	.....	41	Allowed later	2	0	2
1882	57	3	60				
1890	42	2	44	Total, 1871–1921, etc.	2,135	155	2,290
1900	38	2	40				
1910	56	3	59				

In addition to a more lengthy Christmas letter Miss Sherman sends the following letter to the men and women graduates.

LETTER TO THE MEN.[2]

MY DEAR FRIEND: It was a great pleasure to hear from so many of our Hampton men last year, and yet the proportion of replies was not so great as I wish it might have been. Only 418 of the 875 graduate men to whom the Christmas letter was sent responded by returning the inquiry sheet. Some probably said, "I have nothing new to tell, for I am just where I was last year and doing the same work." How was I to know that this was true, unless they told me so? Others said, "Miss Sherman knows where I am; and what is the need of sending any report?" Please do not forget that I do not myself do the work of recording, and that if you send the questionnaire, you save time and labor for me. Many of those now in other institutions perhaps said, "I am not yet settled. I will wait until I have finished my preparation for life." We here like to follow our graduates as they continue their studies elsewhere.

The school has issued trade certificates to 687 negro students. Many others have completed trade courses here. I very much wish that I might hear from every Hampton tradesman this year, whether he is following the particular trade he learned here, or whether he is engaged in some other work. I was recently asked to furnish a list of Hampton contractors. It would have been an easy task had each contractor sent me his inquiry sheet last year.

Please do not fail to notify me at once of any change in your address. Again let me say that while letters are always most welcome, the inquiry sheet is indispensable in our work.

It would help our office very greatly if, when we notify anyone that we have recommended him for some work, he would promptly let us know whether he has heard from the position, and if so, whether he has accepted.

Trusting that I may hear from *you*, and that thus you will do your part toward making the record of our graduate men 100 per cent, I am,

Very cordially yours,

HAMPTON INSTITUTE, M. J. SHERMAN.

December 1, 1921.

[2] A similar letter, with the necessary verbal changes, is sent to the women.

INQUIRY SHEET.

1921–1922.

1. Your name in full? (Please spell out each word of it.)_____

2. When were you graduated from Hampton?_____

3. Your present *home* address?_____

4. Your business address, if any, or if you are *not at home*, your temporary address for the winter of *1921–1922*?_____

5. If you have married, your wife's full name?_____

Was she ever a regular student at Hampton?_____ Is she living?_____

NOTE.—As many will this year for the first time send us their reports and as others have married since we last heard from them, it is necessary again to ask the above questions. Although you may repeat what you have already told us we hope that, for the sake of uniformity in the reports, you will kindly answer the above questions.

6. How many years have you already taught?_____

7. If a teacher now, where are you teaching?_____

Are you employed in a *private* or a *State* institution, or in a *public* graded, high, or county training school?_____

If so, what position do you hold?_____

If not in a school, but doing work along educational lines, what is that work?

8. If an assistant teacher, what grade do you teach?_____

How many assistants are employed in your school?_____

How many pupils attend your *school*?_____

If an assistant, how many pupils have you *yourself* on roll?_____

9. When did your work begin this year?_____ When will it close?_____

Where did you spend last vacation?_____ What doing?_____

10. Your *leading* occupation at the present time?_____

What other occupation, if any, do you combine with it?_____

11. If following a trade, are you an instructor, a contractor, or a journeyman?_____

12. If continuing your studies, where are you a student?_____

What course are you taking?_____

13. What are you doing *in addition to your regular employment* to help your community?_____

NOTE.—If on a salary, what amount (if you are willing to tell) do you receive?_____ For how many months in the year do you receive it?_____ What salary would you consider in order to make a change?_____

Date of filling out the above_____

If you have attended any other institution since leaving Hampton, what was it?_____

How long were you there?_____ In what year were you graduated from that institution?_____

FORMER HAMPTON STUDENTS.

If you know any former Hampton students who do not receive the Christmas letter or who have changed their addresses, please tell me about them below.

Name _____
Address _____
Occupation _____
Name _____
Address _____
Occupation _____

THE ACADEMY AND NORMAL SCHOOL.

HENRY J. DOERMAN,
Director, Academy and Normal School, Hampton Institute.

In 1869 the academic department of Hampton Institute was a school of approximately junior high-school grade. From this nucleus has grown the academy and the normal school of the present day.

The academy to-day is a standard secondary school whose aim is (1) to prepare students for the agricultural school, business school, home economics school, and normal school in the institute, or for collegiate schools elsewhere, and (2) to give instruction in academic subjects to students in the trade school.

An academic diploma is granted upon the satisfactory completion of the required work in the academy, and the recipient is admitted without examination to the advanced course of his choice.

The normal school to-day is a school of college grade. It offers (1) a four-year course for the training of supervisors and principals (for the completion with credit of this course the degree "B. A. in education" will be granted); (2) special courses for the training of high-school teachers; and (3) special courses for the training of elementary-school teachers.

In the pages that follow, the steps through which this evolution has progressed are outlined.

Outstanding successes, as well as failures, have been noted, together with the reasons for significant changes.

The development of the academy and normal school will be treated in four sections: (1) Typical courses of study; (2) entrance requirements; (3) correlations between departments; and (4) teacher training.

TYPICAL COURSES OF STUDY.

COURSES OF STUDY IN 1870.

Junior class.

Mathematics: Arithmetic from long division to percentage.
Language: Spelling, reading, grammar, sentence making.
Natural science: Geography with map drawing; natural history.

Middle class.

Mathematics: Arithmetic completed; bookkeeping.
Language: Spelling, reading; English grammar, with analysis of sentences.
Natural science: Physical geography; natural philosophy; outlines of astronomy.
History: History of the United States.

Senior class.

Mathematics: Algebra; geometry.
Language: Spelling; reading; rhetoric; composition.
Natural science: Physiology; botany.
History: Universal history; history of England in connection with readings from English writers; science of civil government; and moral science.

In addition to the above course, instruction was given in mental arithmetic and penmanship, practical instruction in agriculture, in housework and in household industries, and drill in teaching; a course of lectures every winter upon the application of science to agriculture; and daily inspection of rooms.

NORMAL SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY IN 1921–22.

(The figures indicate the number of 50-minute periods per week.)

First year.

	Periods.
Rhetoric	5
Principles of education and educational psychology	5
Grade methods	5
Methods in physical education (half year)	3
School hygiene (half year)	2
Two electives	10

The two electives may be selected, subject to the approval of the director, from the other courses which the institute offers.

Second year.

Teaching in the Whittier training school (half year).

Half year.

Rural sociology	5
Educational tests and standards	5
History of education since 1850	5
One elective	5

Electives.

Children's literature and story-telling	5
Personal hygiene	1
Library methods	5
Penmanship and drawing	5
Principles of vocational guidance	5

Military science and drill for men throughout the course.

ACADEMY COURSE OF STUDY IN 1922–1923.[1]

FIRST YEAR.

Studies.	Periods.	Units.	Studies.	Periods.	Units.
English and literature	6	1	Manual training (men)	6	
General mathematics	5	1	Physical training	2	
General science	6	1	Singing	2	
Home economics (women	8	1	[illegible]	2	

[1] Military drill throughout the course, three hours per week.

SECOND YEAR.

Studies.	Periods.	Units.	Studies.	Periods.	Units.
English and literature	6	1	Electives, not to exceed 2 units:[1]		
Bible	3		Agriculture	4	
Home economics (women)	6		Algebra	5	1
Applied art (women)	2		Applied business mathematics	5	1
Manual training (men)	6		Biology	6	1
Physical training	2		History to 1700	5	1
Singing	2				

[1] Eighteen units are required for a diploma. Students must take either chemistry or physics and two of the following: History to year 1700; history from 1700; economic geography; sociology. (Students planning to take specific advanced courses at Hampton may substitute other electives with the consent of the director of the academy.)

THIRD YEAR.

Studies.	Periods.	Units.	Studies.	Periods.	Units.
English and literature	5	1	Electives, not to exceed 3½ units—Continued.		
Physical training	7	1	Household arts I	4	
Electives, not to exceed 3½ units:[1]	2		Manual arts I	4	
Advanced drawing			Music appreciation	2	
Bookkeeping I	2		Public speaking I	2	
Chemistry	5	1	Shorthand I	5	1
Economic geography	7	1	Spanish I	5	1
French I	5	1	Typewriting I	5	
Geometry	5	1	Any second-year elective.		
History from year 1700	5	1			

[1] Eighteen units are required for a diploma. Students must take either chemistry or physics and two of the following: History to year 1700; history from 1700; economic geography; sociology. (Students planning to take specific advanced courses at Hampton may substitute other electives with the consent of the director of the academy.)

FOURTH YEAR.

Studies.	Periods.	Units.	Studies.	Periods.	Units.
History of English literature	7	1	Electives, not to exceed 2½ units—Continued.		
American history	5	1	Physics I	7	1
Physical training	3		Public speaking II	2	
Electives, not to exceed 2½ units:[1]			Shorthand II	5	1
Art appreciation	2		Sociology	5	1
Bookkeeping II	5	1	Spanish II	5	1
French II	5	1	Typewriting II	5	
Household arts II	4		Any third (but not second) year elective.		
Manual arts II	4				
Mathematics	5	1			

[1] Eighteen units are required for a diploma. Students must take either chemistry or physics and two of the following: History to year 1700; history from 1700; economic geography; sociology. (Students planning to take specific advanced courses at Hampton may substitute other electives with the consent of the director of the academy.)

For entrance to the advanced schools at Hampton students are advised to make these choices of electives:

Agricultural school—Mathematics and science.
Business school—Applied business mathematics, bookkeeping, economic geography, shorthand, and typewriting.
Home-economics school—Biology, chemistry, and household arts.
Normal school—Mathematics, history, and social sciences.

COURSES OF STUDY OFFERED IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL IN 1922-1923.

I. Collegiate Normal Course—a standard college course of 144 weeks for the training of supervisors and principals. (May be completed in three school years of 48 weeks each or in four school years of 36 weeks each.) For the completion of 180 credit hours in this course the degree "B. A. in Education" will be given.

A "credit hour" is satisfactory work in one lecture or recitation period (or two laboratory periods) of 55 minutes per week for a 12-week quarter.

II.—High-School Teachers' Course—a two-year course in college subjects for the training of high-school teachers. For the completion of 90 credit hours the normal school diploma and subject certificates for high-school teaching will be awarded.

Subject certificates will be issued for every subject in which the student presents 18 or more credit hours. This is done in order to adhere to the general principle that high-school teachers shall have at least two years of training above the high school in the subject in which they are instructing.

III. Professional Normal Course—a two-year course for the training of elementary-school teachers, consisting of prescribed and elective courses. For the completion with credit of the prescribed courses and a sufficient number of electives to bring the total credits earned up to 90, the normal school diploma and the normal professional State certificate will be given.

IV. Elementary Normal Course—a prescribed one-year course for the training of elementary-school teachers as follows:

English composition, 3 hours per week;
Child study, 3 hours per week;
Grade methods, 6 hours per week;
Physical training methods, 3 hours per week;
Hygiene, 2 hours per week;
Agriculture for teachers, 4 hours per week; and Practice-teaching, 30 hours per week for 12 weeks.

For the completion with credit of this course an elementary State certificate will be given. By attendance upon the three summer quarters of 12 weeks each, or one school year of 36 weeks, the graduate of the elementary normal course will be granted the normal school diploma and the normal professional certificate.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

In 1869 the entrance requirements were—

sound health, good character, age not less than 14 nor over 25, ability to read well and write intelligibly; knowledge of arithmetic through long division; intention to remain through the whole course of three years, and to become a teacher.

Ten years later the entrance requirements for the junior class demanded ability to read and write and to pass a satisfactory examination in short and long division.

That the founder of Hampton hoped to raise entrance requirements seems likely, since in his report of 1879–80 General Armstrong says:

> It has been found impossible to raise the standard of admission. Ten years ago over half of our students were from schools maintained by northern charity, whose nine months' sessions, good outfit, and skillful teachers fitted a fine class of candidates for the junior class. The State schools, which have taken their place, have, except in the cities, but three to six months' sessions, poor apparatus, and usually inferior teaching.

The school catalogue in 1879 makes this announcement: "Of those who fail to come up to the requirements of the junior class, a limited number will be allowed to enter a preparatory class." The preparatory class has been the device used by the institute since that time to insure proper training of those entering the regular first-year course. It was not long after 1879 when the preparatory department became the feeder for the regular courses. Until quite recently a majority of the number of new students entering the institute have gone into preparatory classes.

In 1895 the entrance requirements in arithmetic were increased to include common and decimal fractions. By 1899 the entrance requirements had been increased to the following:

> Ability to read well in the third reader; to write in a fair hand a correct paragraph or letter in simple English, properly capitalized, punctuated, and spelled; to make good figures; and to pass a satisfactory examination, both in mental and written work, in the first four rules in arithmetic, in United States money, liquid, dry, and long measure, avoirdupois weight, and common and decimal fractions.

POOR TEACHING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS A HANDICAP.

With possibly a slightly higher requirement in reading ability, the standard of admission to the preparatory class remains the same to-day. It will be noted, however, that the entrance requirements to the first year have advanced from fourth-grade ability to completion of the eighth grade.

The most potent reason for the failure to increase entrance standards is the inferiority of teaching in the public schools, particularly in the rural South, and it is from this section that the institute still prefers to draw its student material.

While the institute is doing in 1922 grades of work which it was long ago hoped would be done by the public school, the policy of the school is not in conflict with the aspirations of negroes for higher grades in their local public schools. Candidates must have com-

pleted the highest grade in the local school before applying for admission to Hampton.

Since 1919 the regular entrance examinations in arithmetic, English, geography, and physiology have been supplemented by standard group intelligence tests. The results of these tests, studied over a three-year period, leave no doubt as to their value as an aid in determining the students of exceptional promise as well as those of inferior ability who must be eliminated.

In common with all schools enrolling students from public schools, Hampton has had to face the problem created by the lack of standards in the so-called graded schools. An eighth grade in one locality may in reality be equivalent to a good fifth grade. More frequently, however, it is the work of the high-school grades which gives the most trouble.

It is desired to encourage maximum preparation in the home community. The corollary to that policy is that the work done in the local schools must be credited. How to do this and at the same time keep up the standards of the school has been a difficult problem. In this connection intelligence tests have been helpful.

GROUP INTELLIGENCE EXAMINATION USED.

All candidates for entrance are first given a group intelligence examination. If the candidate equals or exceeds the norm set for students of his grade, he is given hour for hour credit for all secondary work he has previously had. If the candidate falls below the norm of his class, he must pass entrance examinations in English and arithmetic before he is admitted to any class in the institute. This policy appears the most satisfactory solution of the problem of ungraded students.

Hampton has from the beginning made every attempt to secure attendance on the part of students throughout the entire school year. Since 1908 no one has been allowed to enter after the opening day of the fall term without special permission. The beneficial effect of this fundamental policy has been incalculable.

STUDENTS WANTED BY GENERAL ARMSTRONG.

The first entrance requirements stipulated that the applicant must be between the ages of 14 and 25. In 1892 the minimum age was raised to 16 years. That rather high minimum age was retained until recent years, when it was reduced to 15. The high age required for entrance has undoubtedly had the effect of turning away a number of the brightest products of the public schools, since in effect it bade them stay out of school for a few years, assuming they had made normal progress through the grades, or go to some other school.

The reason for the policy which prevailed for nearly 50 years is undoubtedly to be found in a statement of General Armstrong, taken from his annual report of 1892:

> I prefer to have as pupils those from 17 to 22 years of age, because it is the most formative period; those younger may be more plastic, but don't "stay put" so well. There is too much putty in the early teens. Later there is better mental digestion, more will power; more bodily hardness, and more intelligent, decisive, reliable choice of ends; better sticking to things and more staying power.

CORRELATION BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS.

Since foundation of the institute the academic department[3] has been the clearing house for all academic subjects. Students of trades, agriculture, business, home economics receive their instruction in general subjects, as opposed to vocational subjects, in this department. The department has also been the school in which teachers have been trained—the normal school. This dual nature is of comparatively recent origin.

During General Armstrong's principalship no recognition toward graduation was given to anything except academic work. Manual work was required of all students, but it was on much the same basis that military drill is to-day. Standards of accomplishment in the vocational field were probably just as high as they have ever been, but diplomas were granted solely upon an academic basis. This was true until 1913.

HEAD, HEART, AND HAND.

Education at Hampton has always been considered a unity. The training of the head, heart, and hand was clearly the intent of the founder of the school.

In his report of 1872 General Armstrong says: "It [the academic department] is the leading department, to which all others are subsidiary." Just what the relative emphasis is between academic and vocational, or, in Hampton terms, between head training and hand training, is a difficult question to answer.

During the first 25 years of the school's existence, perhaps unconsciously, the emphasis was head, heart, hand.

During the next 25 years, perhaps equally unconsciously at first, the emphasis was hand, heart, head.

In his report for 1904 Dr. Hollis B. Frissell says:

> After careful comparison of a system in which work in the shop is put first and academic studies made susidiary, and one in which academic instruction is put first and hand work made secondary, the whole corps of teachers agree that the former results in greater gain in character, in initiative, and in intellectual force.

[3] The terms "academic" and "normal" were used interchangeably until 1913, when academic-normal was adopted. Since 1920 the department has been called "academy."

PROBLEM OF SECURING RESPECT FOR INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The tendency of those days was to give dignity and secure respect among the students for industrial training. In summarizing the changes during the first 10 years of his principalship Doctor Frissell says:

> There is a marked change in the attitude of students toward hand work of all kinds—a noticeable development of the idea of the dignity of honest and intelligent labor. In the early years of the school the academic student was the aristocrat, the work student occupying quite a different social position. This was partly owing to the fact that students failing to pass the entrance examinations were put into trades, while those who passed best went into academic classes and prepared for teaching or after graduating for professions.

The first step toward dignifying the trades was when it was decided in 1897 that no student should be allowed to take a trade unless he succeeded in passing the entrance examinations, while, in order to take certain of the advanced trades, he was required in 1897 to pass for the middle class. No student in 1901 was granted a certificate after completing his trade unless he had spent at least one year in the middle class.

TEACHING PEOPLE HOW TO LIVE.

A development affecting the character of academic work in such a way as to make it more practical is one of the early products of this new emphasis on industrial training.

In his report of 1895 Doctor Frissell says:

> Considerable progress has been made the past year toward unifying and correlating the work of the school. We have varied material to deal with and the school is attempting a great deal. We are trying to teach people how to live; and the education in the schoolroom as well as the shop has very difinite ends. It must have definite relation with the daily life of the student.
>
> The attempt has been made to connect the study of mathematics with the problems of the sawmill and the industrial rooms. Instead of taking up problems such as have no possible bearing upon the life of the students, such as they have to meet in their work are brought into the class. Bills of lumber to be gotten out in the sawmill, the dimensions of rooms which the students are building, the amount of cloth needed for garments which the boys and girls are making, these are the questions which are taken up in our arithmetic classes. In mathematics, as in all other departments of the school, more object teaching has been done; very valuable school material for the purpose is being manufactured by the students in their shops.
>
> I should be glad if next, in accordance with the suggestion of one of the teachers, an arithmetic room could be fitted up with counters for buying and selling, money, measures, and all the appliances for making real to our Indian and colored students the transactions of the daily life of our people.
>
> One of our graduates connected with the Treasury Department has gone into the classroom and with insurance policies, bank bills, bills of sale, mortgages, and tax bills has given information that will be of much practical value to them and their people.

The same relation has been further established and maintained between the science teaching of the classroom and the work of the farm, the hospital, the barn, the kitchen, and the shops. The work in chemistry has been taken up in connection with the school's food supply and the needs of the plants on the farm. Natural philosophy has been studied a part of the time in the Huntington Industrial Works [forerunner of the trade school].

That this effort to correlate academic studies and industrial work succeeded is witnessed by such an eminent authority as Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, who said at Hampton, in 1910, after making a careful inspection of the institution, that he had found here the best combination of industrial and academic instruction that he had thus far seen, and he called attention to the intense interest which the students showed in their work and their happiness in it.

CORRELATION OF ACADEMIC AND VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION.

If the academic department had had only the single objective of correlating these two types of instruction, academic and vocational, it is doubtful whether any educational aim could have been more satisfactorily achieved. The emphasis was placed entirely on specific training.

The department, however, had another function, and a too strict concern over the practical application of English and arithmetic and science to the everyday life of the tradesman was not likely to broaden the horizon of the prospective teacher.

There was no lack of emphasis on practice teaching, but the training in subject matter suffered through the insistence upon the practical. Not that specific training is necessarily more limited in its scope than general training, but when all so-called abstract arithmetic must give way to the concrete arithmetical demands of a carpenter or bricklayer the resulting subject matter is scarcely extensive enough for the teacher of arithmetic.

The trend to-day is in the other direction. In 1913 academic subjects were made a part of the trade and agricultural school courses. The purpose of the academic work is not primarily to reenforce the trade but to develop intelligent citizens who can make an intellectual, as well as a vocational contribution to the communities to which the graduates go.

STUDENTS NEED TIME TO PREPARE THEIR LESSONS.

A valid criticism of our courses now is that they tend to be extensive rather than intensive. The number of subjects required is so large that an inadequate amount of time is set aside for the preparation of assignments. Standards of accomplishment are necessarily

lowered under such a system. To remedy effectually this situation the school has resolutely set itself.

Fewer subjects will be required in the academy, and students will not be expected to take more than four subjects that require outside preparation at one time. More time is to be set aside for study. (See academy course of study for 1922–23.)

The daily program for tradesmen allows no time for study. With the exception of an hour for dinner and an hour for supper, the trade student has school appointments from 7.45 in the morning to 8.30 at night. The first period in the morning and the last two periods at night are set aside for academic subjects. The problem of fatigue in evening classes is a serious one, but aside from that fact it is clear that with no opportunity for outside study the night classes can not parallel the day classes.

For years the aim has been to give in subject for subject the same quality and quantity of academic training to academic and to trade students. It is now seen to be impossible to do this as far as quantity is concerned.

The pendulum has been swinging away from the splendidly organized concrete courses of study of former years. For the training of teachers a broadening of the courses of study was necessary, but it is doubtful if for tradesmen the academic courses of those days did not offer the best kind of liberal training and if they did not result in "a greater gain in character, in initiative, and in intellectual force."

It is interesting in this connection to note that in his survey of Hampton Institute, made in 1917, Dr. Paul H. Hanus, of Harvard University, recommends that the academic department be decentralized and that the academic subjects in the trade courses be taught by instructors in the trade school. Similar recommendations were made for the business, agricultural, and home-economics schools. This recommendation not only was in line with general policy in other vocational schools but was substantiated by the positive results noted above from academic training with a vocational emphasis.

TEACHER TRAINING.

The primary aim of Hampton Institute at the time of its founding was to train teachers. No student was admitted to the school who did not agree to become a teacher. Even when the school took on additional types of instruction, when trade and agriculture were well under way, the only students actually graduated—that is, given diplomas—were normal graduates. The object of the school was to send out trained classroom teachers, according to the school catalogue of 1893. The first *class* to graduate without teacher training was in

1918, though there had been individual exceptions among the men before that time.

Since normal training figured so largely in the objective of the institute, it is to be expected that this phase of the work should have received especial consideration. The very enviable reputation enjoyed by Hampton-trained teachers during more than half a century is the natural result of the high standards that Hampton has always maintained in the department of teacher training.

General Armstrong, himself a teacher before entering Williams College, knew that the best way to learn to teach was to teach. It is not surprising, therefore, to find, even in the very crowded three-year schedule, practice teaching at an early date.

PROBLEM OF STRENGTHENING THE TEACHER-TRAINING WORK.

Below is listed, in chronological order, the various methods which have been employed by Hampton Institute to strengthen its teacher-training work:

1870—In addition to the subjects listed in the course of study, "drill in teaching through the course" was given.

1878—At the close of the regular school year a teachers' institute was held. The senior class of 40 students and 20 graduates attended. The aim of the teachers' institute was to provide technical training in the art of teaching. This practice continued until teacher training was developed at the Butler [now Whittier] school.

1882—Practice teaching was begun at Butler school.

1884—Each senior taught one half-day every two weeks at the Butler school.

1885—The report of 1885 states that—

> According to the decision of the trustees at the last annual meeting, instead of continuing their studies, those who shall hereafter be promoted from the middle to the senior class will teach one year with a view of making the senior studies more profitable.[4]

1888—In the annual report for this year General Armstrong says:

> For the second time we have had a senior class of teachers, it being made up entirely of those who have had at least a year's experience of teaching, some have had more. We feel more than ever convinced that we have made no mistake in what at first was tried as an experiment, the year of teaching between the middle and senior years. We hope it will come to be considered as a fourth year of the course, so long as it returns to us students more mature and more intelligently earnest about fitting themselves for their work as teachers.[5]

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[4] This scheme capitalized the institute's observation that students who had to drop out of school for a year on account of lack of funds and who spent that year in teaching were superior to the students who had not had that experience.

[5] The obvious danger in the above policy—that is, that students securing a position would not return for the senior year—eventually caused a relaxation in the one-year teaching requirement and the scheme was finally dropped.

1892—Each senior spent a month at the Whittier training school.

1898—By this time the seniors no longer had had the year of teaching and the authorities saw that their product was not as strong as in the late eighties and early nineties.

In his annual report of 1898 Doctor Frissell says:

> The members of the present senior class of the academic department will not receive their teachers' certificates as in former years at graduation. Probably many of them will teach and they are in many respects better qualified than the graduates of former years, but if they are to receive Hampton's teachers' certificates they must, after graduation, pursue a special course in the normal department. In former years teachers' certificates of a low grade were granted to those who went out at the end of their middle year. If we are to raise the grade of work done in the public schools we must insist on well-trained teachers.[6]

1905—The academic course was revised and lengthened to four years. Most of the subjects in the advanced normal course of 1898 were incorporated in the new academic course. The plan for practice teaching, adopted at this time, has been adhered to up to the present time.

1910—Seniors taught in the Whittier training school five days a week for one-half a year. An attempt was made to establish an advanced course for the preparation of teachers of higher grade. The class started with 10 members but was discontinued after two years. The subjects in the course were again incorporated in the revision of the academic course of 1913, which placed that course on a four-year secondary basis.

The time allotted to practice teaching in these courses might appear excessive. No one would claim that one-half a year of practice teaching was too much, but opinions differ as to the wisdom of the time distribution when 25 per cent of the total number of hours in a two-year normal course is set aside for practice teaching. The most effective answer is that splended results have been obtained in the four-year course on that basis, and that for the present the organization of both the Whittier training school and the normal school makes that the most feasible arrangement.

1921—Seniors in the old academic-normal course[7] and seniors in the normal school[8] spend one-half year in the Whittier training school as student-teachers. This plan has been in operation since 1905.

PROBLEM OF TRAINING TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The most frequent criticism to-day of Hampton's training of teachers, which is a valid one, is that the school does not send out

[6] This advanced normal course was a two-year course.
[7] See course of study in 1916, expiring in 1923.
[8] Course adopted in 1920.

teachers for the higher grades. Hampton has never attempted more than the preparation of elementary-school teachers.

To-day there is an insistent demand for teachers in secondary schools. Schoolmen in the past have looked to Hampton Institute for teachers of their highest grades. They still do.

The school's reputation has suffered because graduates have been placed in high-school positions for which they had not training.

The authorities of the institute have clearly recognized the demand for teachers in the higher schools and are now ready to offer courses for the preparation of high-school teachers and elementary and high-school principals.

The courses of study which are offered in the normal school for 1922–23 will be found on page 27.

THE WHITTIER TRAINING SCHOOL.

SARAH J. WALTER,

Principal, Whittier Training School, Hampton Institute.

In the summer of 1887 the Butler schoolhouse, which had long been used as a practical school for Hampton, was bestowed upon the colored people of the neighborhood. The Butler's successor was a plain but commodious wooden building, with many of the modern conveniences of kitchen, sewing room, janitor's room, and technical carpenter shop. On Wednesday, November 23, 1887, the Butler's successor opened its doors.

It seemed natural to name the new schoolhouse after its builder, but the generous givers preferred to have no family name attached to their gift. All readily agreed with General Armstrong's suggestion to give it the name of John G. Whittier, with whom his own and Hampton's relation had long been one of gratitude and affection. So, with the poet's acceptance of the tribute, the Whittier schoolhouse was named. Pictures of Mr. Whittier, with two framed letters in the poet's own handwriting, hang in the assembly room, and year by year the pupils honor the birthday of the one for whom the building has been named.

On Saturday, March 1, 1890, the school was suddenly broken up by an alarm that the Whittier was on fire. On Monday, November 24, 1890, the Whittier school was reopened in a new building, which, except for some enlargement and improvement, was a reproduction of the one that had burned a short time before.

In 1897 the model training class at the summer normal school was conducted by a Whittier teacher who had been a Butler pupil.

TEACHER TRAINING GIVEN STUDENTS.

The training of teachers in summer schools and institutes is not a new idea at Hampton. In 1876 Mrs. Walton was one of the pioneer teachers in the institute work of Hampton Institute. In 1877 Prof. James Johonnot, of Ithaca, N. Y., conducted an institute for the teachers. In 1876 Professor Allen, of Pennsylvania, held an institute for the benefit of the graduating class and postgraduates who were able to attend. This institute was attended by 60, of whom 20 were postgraduate students. Three lectures were daily delivered, and an examination was held on June 14 at the close of the institute. This was the first technical training in the art of teaching provided by the institute. The same year the children at the Butler School showed their hand skill through articles that were sent to the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia.

In 1878 the first alumni meeting was held. It is interesting to note that on June 21, 1921, the class that graduated on May 12, 1916, held its five-year reunion and pledged themselves to give $1,200 toward a musical scholarship.

In 1878 Colonel Parker, of Quincy, Mass., conducted the institute for the teachers. Again, the graduates in 1879 had the benefit of Colonel Parker's inspiring lectures, and Miss Bullard, a former pupil of his, conducted the Butler school through that year, making it a school of observation for the seniors.

Up to July, 1878, out of 222 graduates, only 17 had failed to teach of those who had come under the instruction received by the Hampton graduate.

In 1880 General Armstrong said of the Butler school:

> The Butler school has an average of 200, and is an important auxiliary to the institute. It has been taught for two years on Quincy methods, as far as possible, and it affords valuable training to the normal school under a skilled teacher.

PRESENT-DAY WORK OF THE WHITTIER SCHOOL.[1]

These are some of the changes that have come. To-day our school enrolls over 500 pupils. The time has been changed from the eight months, so long in vogue, to a nine months' school year, thus making the term longer in which to do the work.

A trained nurse gives Thursday and Friday of each week to the needs of the children who require her services and to the home. The girls of the highest class also receive valuable instruction in the care of the sick.

A patrons' league, known as the Whittier Parents' Association, meets regularly on the third Friday of each month. The first meet-

[1] As of December, 1921.

ing of the year is in the nature of a social and is given by the parents of the children to the Whittier teachers. The last meeting of the year the compliment is returned, and the Whittier teachers give the parents and friends of the school a social. This league gives strong financial backing to the school.

The number of grades has been changed from seven to nine, thus taking in two years of high-school work and enabling older boys and girls to remain in school at least two years longer and preparing them to go to higher schools.

A hot lunch is prepared by members of the home-economics class who are taking the normal training work. Each year since starting the lunch has seen a larger number of children availing themselves of the warm noonday meal.

Over 200 home gardens are supervised by the agricultural men who are taking their training at the Whittier.

The school is taught in music, manual training, and drawing by teachers from the institute, who teach regularly at the Whittier.

INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES OF WHITTIER GIRLS.

Any girl who goes through the nine years at the Whittier School has had instruction along the following lines:

Room 1—Cutting, pasting, dusting, waiting on door, and helping to keep the room clean. Projects relating to health, race story, and gardens are also given to the pupils.

Room 2—Cutting, pasting, sewing rags for the loom, table setting and dusting, snipping for cushions, and projects, as in room 1, growing out of their class-work problems are given to the children.

Room 3—Sewing bags and dusters are made, also the beginning of a simple garment. Cardboard work. Dusting is also emphasized in this room.

Room 4—Dusting and the care of a room. Petticoats and drawers are made by the children, and they are taught how to make a bed. For this purpose small bedsteads are made by the boys in the manual-training room.

Room 5—Petticoats, drawers, and aprons are made. Dusting, housekeeping, and bed making, using, as in room 4, the small beds.

Room 6—Dusting. Cooking is begun. The girls here learn to prepare very simple dishes, and underwear making is continued. Housekeeping and the care of a bedroom. In this room pupils are transferred from the work with small bedsteads to the care of a bedroom. A room has been added to the kitchen for this purpose, and, with the help of the boys in making box furniture and of the girls at the loom in weaving rugs, the room has been very neatly furnished.

Room 7—Dusting; cooking of a more advanced nature; underwear and crocheting; housekeeping. Baskets are made.

Rooms 8 and 9—Housekeeping is continued along all lines. Dresses are made. Patching and darning. Darning and patching are employed in all of the rooms as the need arises for the mending of children's clothing, sewing on buttons, etc.

Room 9—Cooking, neighborhood needs; housekeeping. The housekeeping includes washing, ironing, removing stains, scrubbing, stove polishing, lighting fires, cleaning woodwork, the care of a bedroom, care of any room, dishwashing, sweeping, and dusting.

The children also in the two highest grades do neighborhood work.

The dusting throughout the building is done by the pupils.

Bed making is taught from the second room up through the ninth.

Weaving is taught in room 9.

At Thanksgiving time the girls in the older rooms prepare a dinner or make pies for a number of aged people of the community. The Weaver Home for Orphans, a local negro institution, is generously remembered at this time.

The social for the patrons' league and other social gatherings of the year afford an opportunity for serving a large number.

At Christmas time candy making and wreath making are taught. At Easter the younger children are taught to color eggs.

INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES OF WHITTIER BOYS.

Up to the fourth year boys and girls are taught alike, but in the fourth year a regular course in manual training is begun for boys. It has been found wise to begin to differentiate their work and separate the boys and girls in this grade, in order to carry out the principles underlying home and community service. In all of the rooms the boys bring the water and do the heavy work, cleaning boards, etc. Repairs of a simple nature in schoolroom and yard are made by the boys in rooms 7, 8, and 9. Yard apparatus is also made by these older boys.

Among some of the school and household articles made by the boys are corn-shuck mats, crab nets, seesaws, basket-ball apparatus, desk repairs, rulers, fireless cooker, iceless cooler, shoe tabaret, umbrella stand, soap and fancy boxes, bird houses, etc.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING GIVEN PUPIL TEACHERS.

In the last or professional year of 1922 the school gave, as an evidence of the work done in its various departments, a diploma and State of Virginia professional elementary school certificate good for 10 years and subject to renewal upon certain conditions of good behavior, scholarship, and school management.

The subjects that have been studied and that have had a direct bearing upon professional life are educational psychology; special methods in arithmetic, reading, hygiene, etc.; one book from the State reading course, recommended by the Virginia State Board of Education and forming a basis for the principles used in presenting subject matter and a guide, to a certain extent, in the course of observation which precedes the practice; a course in preventive diseases and medicine, given by some one under the auspices of the Virginia State Board of Health, cooperating with the Viriginia State Board of Education.

There has been teaching under supervision for four months, giving the entire time to preparation of lessons and class management.

Some of the students had a taste of settlement work and received the last two months of their training at the Virginia Industrial School for Colored Girls, at Peak, Va. This institution is under the supervision of Mrs. Janie Porter Barrett, a graduate of Hampton Institute.

There has been given an opportunity to get a nine-years' well-balanced program, giving to the teacher the sequence and correlation of subjects. There have been many chances to see how a large school is managed in detail with regard to attendance, tardiness, signals, marching, dismissal, morning exercises, etc.; also how a school hot lunch can be prepared and served.

There has been the opportunity of direction in free and directed play in yard at recess and in schoolroom.

On Friday morning instead of the usual morning exercises the time has been given over to Sunday-school instruction or Bible work. This is followed at 3.20 in the afternoon, the discussion hour, by the study of principles and methods, also of what could have been done to have made the day's work stronger in principle and character building.

Perhaps you would like to know what the daily program of one is who is taking the training. It is a busy day for all. This is the schedule: 8.35–8.55, preparation of classroom for day's work; 9–9.15, devotions in assembly hall (every day except Friday); 9.20–10.30, classroom work according to schedule; 10.30–10.40, outdoor recess; 10.43–11.55, classroom work; 11.55–12.00, dismissal; 1.15–2.15, classroom work; 2.15–2.25, games, setting-up drill, etc.; 2.35–3.12 classroom work; and 3.12–3.15 dismissal.

SOME WHITTIER TRAINING SCHOOL NEEDS.

From the foregoing course of work and method with regard to the Whittier training, it must not be supposed for one moment that there are not many things left undone and many things that need to be changed.

Some of the immediate needs are more men to take the training and go out to take positions as principals of county training schools and principals of public schools.

Men are spoken of because a boy from 12 to 16 years of age needs the influence exerted by a man of strong character and scholarly instincts.

It would be a great asset to the training teacher if he had an elementary knowledge of the earth and its relation to the needs of man through food, shelter, and clothing.

The teachers who take the training, as a rule, have not the necessary foundation for a course in race-story and nature study to carry on these two lines of activity with children.

There should be more opportunities for the prospective teacher to visit and teach in near-by schools. The industrial work of the rural schools of the county and adjoining counties could be done by members of the training class as a part of their training. This would add very greatly to the efficiency of the one in training, giving him a broader view of his work.

There is also something to be said in connection with getting another point of view, different from that given by the home school. Principles are universal, but their application must vary according to needs.

THE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.

WARREN K. BLODGETT,

Director, Agricultural School, Hampton Institute.

From the first farm operations in 1868, when General Armstrong and his associates set out to supply the institution's needs for food, until the organization of the collegiate agricultural course in 1920, there has been an evolution in which each step has been taken in answer to the existing needs of American negroes. Each step has been developed and in turn has been readapted to changing needs.

Educational fearlessness has been the outstanding characteristic of the changes which have been made developing the agricultural program. There has been a willingness to give up one line of work and start some new line of work, whenever it has been clear that conditions have been changing sufficiently to warrant new aims and methods or when any special kind of work has not given the expected good results.

There has always been a tendency to look at immediate problems with a new vision, to cut loose from schoolmen's tradition, if necessary, and to take forward steps, based upon the educational needs of negroes and Indians.

PRACTICAL FARMING FROM THE BEGINNING.

The problems of securing a food supply and of providing employment for pupils were pressing in the early days as they were in many other industrial or vocational schools. Hampton was fortunate enough to secure for its first farm manager a man who com-

bined practical farm experience and ability to handle men with a big, generous sympathy for those crude, needy, ambitious students who came under him.

Under this practical farm manager, a negro or Indian boy, who had been assigned to duty on the farm, was sure to get some education for life; he learned to work, to be prompt, and to be neat; above all he was instructed in the best methods of farming through actually doing the work of a farmer.

To work hard, to be on time, and to do a task thoroughly—these were some of the real needs of those ex-slaves who came to Hampton in the early days. This practical field training which was under the direction of a wide-awake, level-headed farm manager, was supplemented by class-room work in elementary English, arithmetic, and elementary agricultural science.

INTRODUCTION OF AN AGRICULTURAL TEACHER.

As numbers grew and as it was seen that the gospel of better farming could best be carried afield by giving more definite instruction in the *why* and *wherefore* of farm practices, a special teacher of agriculture was added to the classroom teaching staff. This instructor's task was that of teaching the scientific meanings of the daily farm tasks. He was not a part of the farm manager's organization, and there naturally arose the problem of adjusting the teaching of agriculture in the classroom and the practice of agriculture on the farm. Hampton early learned that it is not wise to have the practice of agriculture and the teaching of agriculture widely separated.

TEACHING AND PRACTICAL WORK UNITED.

All agricultural activities were placed in 1906 under one head, who was called a "director of the agricultural department." Under the director there was a superintendent of the farm. This organization continues to-day at the large school farm, called "Shellbanks' farm," which is located 5 miles from Hampton Institute.

A slightly modified plan, however, was worked out for the near-by Whipple farm, which is the local institute farm. This farm was organized into several divisions—dairy, creamery, poultry, horse barn, and horticulture. A man who was qualified to teach each of these branches of agriculture and was also qualified to superintend the operation of each division was placed in charge of each division. It was expected from this organization that the so-called practical and the scientific—the how and the why—would be closely united.

The man who was in charge of the dairy, for example, taught the classroom work in dairying. If an instructor, however, was to meet regular classroom appointments, he could not be at his post on

A. CLASS IN PHYSICS.

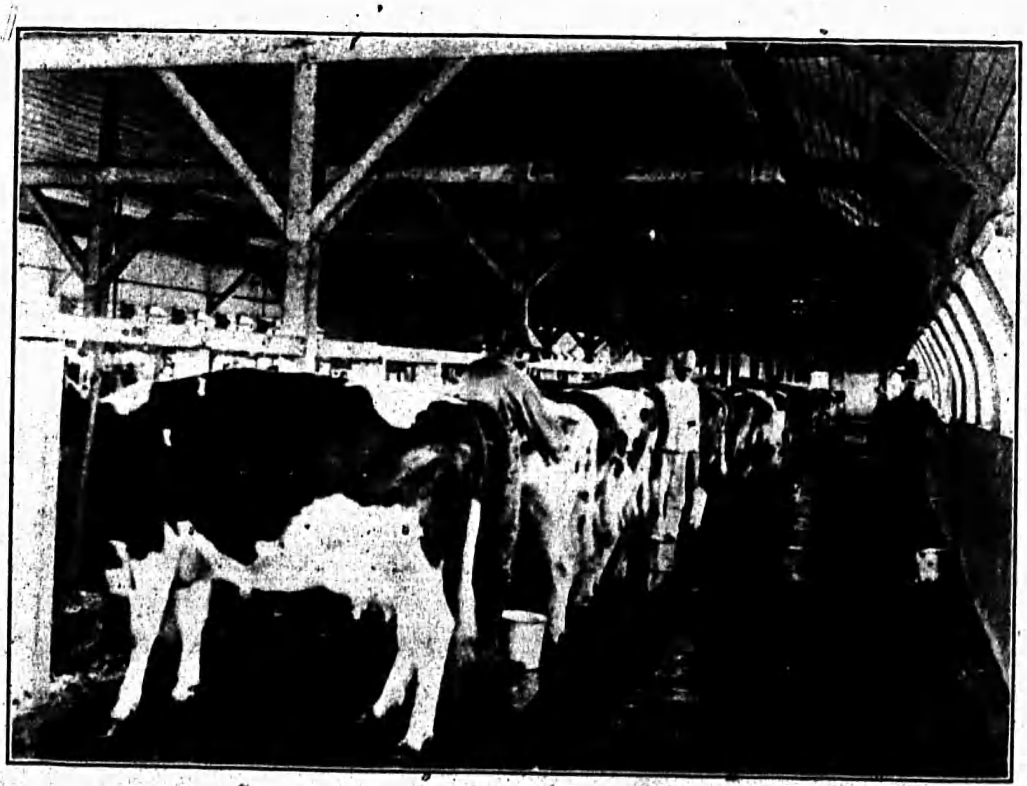
The laws of mechanics are studied in relation to farm machinery and rural engineering.

B. WORKING AN AGRICULTURAL PROJECT.

Each student works his project on a business basis.

A. CLASS IN AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY.

Chemical analyses of soils, fertilizers, and feeds are included in this course.



B. THE DAIRY HERD.

the farm to give the proper supervision which was greatly needed, especially when inexperienced students were constantly to be trained. Consequently, a foreman, working under the division head, was installed in each division. This item of reorganization increased the agricultural department's expense.

Although an attempt has been and is now made to apportion salaries so as to separate educational from purely productive effort, this apportionment has never been fully accomplished. The farm has always had to bear more overhead and supervision expense than a commercial farm would have had to bear.

EDUCATIONAL AND PRODUCTIVE WORK COMBINED.

If the director pressed upon the division heads to *make the divisions pay*, then the division heads, in their effort to reduce expenses, were tempted to curtail on that training which seriously reduced the educational advantages of their work.

It is a difficult and debatable question to decide. What expense should be borne by an educational account and what expense should be borne by a productive department?

What is educational to-day may be productive next week, and what is productive under one condition may be wholly educational under other conditions. Many expenses are truly both educational charges and charges for productive work. He is a wise administrator who can properly assign them in any budget of accounts.

Some institutions have always carried separately the two activities—education and production—with the result that there has been an undesirable distinction in the students' minds between *farming to make a living* and *farming to teach others how to farm.*

Hampton has not separated the two phases of educational and productive work in agriculture, but has closely tied together the ideas of education and production.

GIVING STUDENTS ALL-ROUND TRAINING.

The agricultural department was organized in 1913 on a four-year high-school basis. Students spend one-half day in agricultural classes and one-half day at practice work in some division of the farm or its associated activities, such as the floral division, the upkeep of roads and grounds division.

After supper the students attended two classes in academic studies, such as English, literature, history, mathematics, and other English branches.

The plan of shifting students for their one-half day practice from one division to another every few weeks, with a certain number of

months assigned to the care and handling of poultry, a certain number to the planting, growing, and harvesting of vegetables, had the advantage of giving students a wide opportunity to acquire various skills under close and competent supervision.

There were, however, many difficulties in the administration of this plan. It often became necessary, for example, to find work for students in certain divisions, when there was no definite need of their services in that division. There was also the lack of close connection between what the student chose to call theory and practice. The same problem might come up in the classroom and then in practice weeks or years apart. The instructor in the classroom often found that some students had had the desirable practice when problems came up, while others were still waiting for their turn to get some practical experience.

While students were acquiring proper skills and habits of industry and thoroughness, under careful supervision, there was not enough promise that these habits would be effective, if the student were thrown on his own responsibility as he must be thrown in after life. All the management of the work under this plan of organization was in the hands of instructors. The decisions rested with them. There was constant pressure to make the divisions pay. There was not much time during which the student could try out something himself or during which instructors could wait for him to exercise his initiative. The student did as he was directed.

It was found that in the classroom teaching the lecture method was being more widely used than it should and that it was not getting the results which were sought. The student himself did not have enough opportunity in the classroom to discover ideas and try out the ideas he had acquired. He was apt to rely too much upon the teacher.

The academic work, which was done at night after a full day's work, was not done under advantageous mental conditions. It often left students who were poorly equipped in English when they entered Hampton all too poorly equipped when they graduated.

ADVANCED COURSE PAVES WAY FOR COLLEGE COURSE.

Some time before the complete organization of the secondary course in agriculture which has been described, there was organized what was called a postgraduate high-school course in agriculture. As its name implies, this course was offered for those who had graduated from the secondary course at Hampton or had pursued successfully an equivalent course in some other institution. The work in this course was of a more advanced nature than the regular agricultural work offered at Hampton. More science was given

than in the regular course. Students were given considerable responsibility in respect to classroom and outside assignments.

The object of this advanced course in agriculture was to prepare men for extension teaching and for the management of farming enterprises. While the students were few, they were of the highest caliber. This is proved by the fact that most of the graduates of this course now hold positions of responsibility.

This advanced work was given up because of administrative difficulties. Besides giving a few very valuable workers to the field of extension teaching, this postgraduate course in agriculture pointed the way to what was needed. This course later became a strong argument for establishing the agricultural work at Hampton on a college basis.

NEED OF HAVING STUDENTS EXPRESS THEMSELVES.

In 1918 a survey of the work of Hampton was made by Prof. Paul H. Hanus, of Harvard, under the auspices of the General Education Board. Dr. R. W. Stimson, of Massachusetts, was selected to make the special study of Hampton's agricultural activities. Doctor Stimson's report made many helpful suggestions, but the chief one follows: The students lack opportunity to organize for themselves and express what they are learning in the field and in the classroom.

To remedy this defect, Doctor Stimson felt that the classroom teaching should be improved by the introduction of more recitation and laboratory work. He also recommended that the agricultural project, as it was then being carried out in some of the Northern States, should be introduced. The home project was impossible, since this kind of work would involve having students stay the year round at Hampton.

TEACHING FARMERS AND RURAL LEADERS.

In 1918, according to the school catalogue, the object of the agricultural department was "to train young men to be farmers." The course was planned to train farmers. Of all the recent Hampton graduates, however, practically none could be found who were farmers, according to the general definition of that term. Many could be found, however, and these among the leading graduates, who were agricultural teachers, rural-school principals, and farm-demonstration or extension-service agents.

BETTER-TRAINED MEN IN DEMAND.

The Smith-Lever and Smith-Hughes Acts have presented, and still present, growing opportunities for important agricultural service. For this work there are needed men of the best training. These

changing agricultural needs among American negroes caused Hampton to decide, in 1920, to establish its agricultural work on a collegiate basis.

A careful survey was made before this step was taken to see if it was justified. It was found from Hampton graduates who were filling important school and Government positions in agricultural work that in almost every case the men who held the more important posts had found it necessary to supplement their Hampton agricultural training by further training elsewhere.

The demand was constantly growing for men who had more training in agriculture than was given in the usual secondary agricultural course. It was discovered that the most service could be rendered to agriculture and to rural-life improvement by training those who could go to the farmer and farm children in their own community and teach not only better farm practices, but the broader principles of cooperative effort, business management, and rural sanitation.

By preparing well-qualified teachers of agriculture who can hold positions in the colored land-grant schools, agricultural training of a high order may be given to many boys without the necessity of their leaving their own States. The greatest hindrance to the establishment of strong agricultural departments in these schools has been the lack of qualified teachers, who have a proper educational outlook. These reasons determined Hampton's policy in putting the agricultural school on the collegiate basis.

It is believed that some of the graduates from the college course in agriculture will choose to demonstrate that a complete education in agriculture fits a man to become the best possible farmer. For some time, because of the great demand for teachers of agriculture, most of the graduates in agriculture may elect to teach. It is believed, however, that some graduates will elect the occupation of farming and in this way will perhaps do more than those who teach to show that more education in agriculture, as in other callings, will bring an individual a fuller and a more complete life.

COLLEGE COURSE IN AGRICULTURE.

The college course in agriculture, which was organized in 1920, has progressed far enough for one to say something about its actual operation.

The entrance requirements are farm experience and the completion of a secondary-school course. Farm experience is required, not only for the information or skill which it gives, but more especially for the background and appreciation of rural problems which it furnishes prospective agricultural leaders.

A NEW DEPARTURE.

The curriculum departs somewhat from that of the regular college by requiring continuous attendance at the Hampton Institute agricultural school for 3 years of 12 months each, rather than for 4 years of 9 months each.

The year is the unit for farm operations. All students must carry a farm project throughout each year.

The courses of study are organized on the quarter, or 12-week basis. The major part of the time in the fall, winter, and spring quarters is devoted to work in the classroom, the shop, and the laboratory. The major part of the summer quarter is devoted to practice work.

The drawing of sharp lines between subjects is not encouraged. The coordinating of one subject with another, under proper conditions, is encouraged.

The result which is sought is the securing of a broader point of view on the part of the students and a wider and also a more meaningful student appreciation of classroom work.

A study of the first-year field-crops course would show that the instructor, while taking up the question, What is the best time to cut corn? had touched upon some questions which were generally left to the botany department. He had not gone fully into the botanical side of the problem of corn-harvesting, but he had given sufficient information and had awakened sufficient interest to connect up *the time of harvest* with the process of photosynthesis and there left it for the science teacher to work out more fully at some later period. Farm-crops problems did not stop in this class with problems of *how to grow crops* any more than they did in a commercial farmer's actual experience. These farm-crops problems had opened the way to problems of the farm management and economics.

Thus it is hoped that, by the combination of theory and practice, the evil of narrow specialization has been avoided.

It might be added that this combination method is pursued in all agricultural subjects for the first two-thirds of the college course. Specialization, as it is generally understood, is reserved for the last year of the course.

THE COLLEGE COURSE OFFERS ALL-ROUND TRAINING.

The relative time devoted to the different subjects, if translated into college semester hours on the usual basis that one semester hour equals one hour (55 minutes) of prepared work or two hours of laboratory work per week for 18 weeks, shows that approximately 20 semester hours are devoted during the whole course to each of

the following subject groups: English, social science, science, mathematics and rural engineering, agriculture, and professional work (teacher training).

The college course in agriculture covers a total of 122 semester hours. The minimum standard required for graduation from agricultural colleges is 120 semester hours.

Below is given a complete tabular view of the studies in the college course in agriculture, as of January, 1922. The table may be suggestive to those who are planning similar courses of study. While the table indicates that all the courses are prescribed, nevertheless, Hampton has always been willing to make changes in its courses to meet the needs of those whom it seeks to help.

Hampton Institute agricultural school program of studies, January, 1922.

Studies.	Branches.	First 12 months. Class periods.[1] First quarter.	Second quarter.	Third quarter.	Fourth quarter.	Semester hours.	Second 12 months. Class periods. First quarter.	Second quarter.	Third quarter.	Fourth quarter.	Semester hours.	Third 12 months. Class periods. First quarter.	Second quarter.	Third quarter.	Fourth quarter.	Semester hours.	Semester hours in each group.
English	American and English literature; practice in writing and speaking.	5	5	5	1	9	5	4	4	1	8	5	...	3	3	6	23
Social science and economics.	History of rural life	3	3	3	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Rural sociology and marketing.	...	...	...	...	...	3	3	3	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	
	Economics and farm management.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	3	3	5	15
Science	Chemistry	8	6	8	...	6	...	6	6	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	
	Hygiene	...	4	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Soil technology	...	...	...	...	...	6	4	...	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	
	Sanitation (bacteriology) etc.	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	22
	Elective: botany and entomology.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	...	6	6	5	
Mathematics, physics, and rural engineering.[2]	Farm machinery; physics; and farm shopwork	5	6	6	2	9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Farm buildings and weather conditions.	...	...	...	...	...	5	5	...	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	20
	Gas engines; drainage	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	5	5	6	
Agriculture	Farm crops	4	3	3	2	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Animal husbandry	...	...	...	...	...	6	5	5	3	9	...	...	...	...	...	
	Farm projects, including technical study and business management.	5	0	4	6	[3]1	4	3	3	4	[3]1	...	...	...	...	...	22
	Elective	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	3	3	5	
Professional work	Educational psychology	...	...	...	...	...	3	3	3	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	
	Practice-teaching	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	1	...	15	...	...	6	20
	Methods of teaching	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	...	5	5	8	
Total semester hours.		...	...	...	...	38	...	...	...	...	43	...	...	...	...	41	122

[1] Semester hours are figured according to the usual standard, namely, 1 college semester hour equals 1 period of work prepared or 2 laboratory periods of 55 minutes each for 18 weeks. For graduation 120 semester hours are required.

[2] During each year the essential mathematical and physical principles which are connected with these subjects receive about one-fourth of the time which is here indicated. This includes some study of algebra, geometry, mechanics, heat, and electricity, as well as drafting, mapping, and leveling.

[3] Farm project may come in first quarter of next year, depending on date when business of project is closed.

AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS HAVE HIGH EDUCATIONAL VALUE.

The college course in agriculture is not planned for the final training of specialists in a particular branch of agriculture. Well-rounded, broadly educated colored men who are fitted for rural leadership are needed to-day. The reckoning of semester hours, which is given above, takes no account of the agricultural project.

The project, because of the conventional method of figuring collegiate credits, can not claim any semester hour credits, but on account of the way in which the required agricultural credits are carried out the effectiveness of the 20 semester hours devoted to agriculture is more than doubled.

The students spend no more time on their projects than many a man in another agricultural college spends in earning his way through school by waiting on table, doing clerical work, tending furnaces, or doing some other things to earn money. Besides being of fundamental help to the student, the project serves the extra purpose of adding to the educational value of the regular classroom and laboratory work.

GENERAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

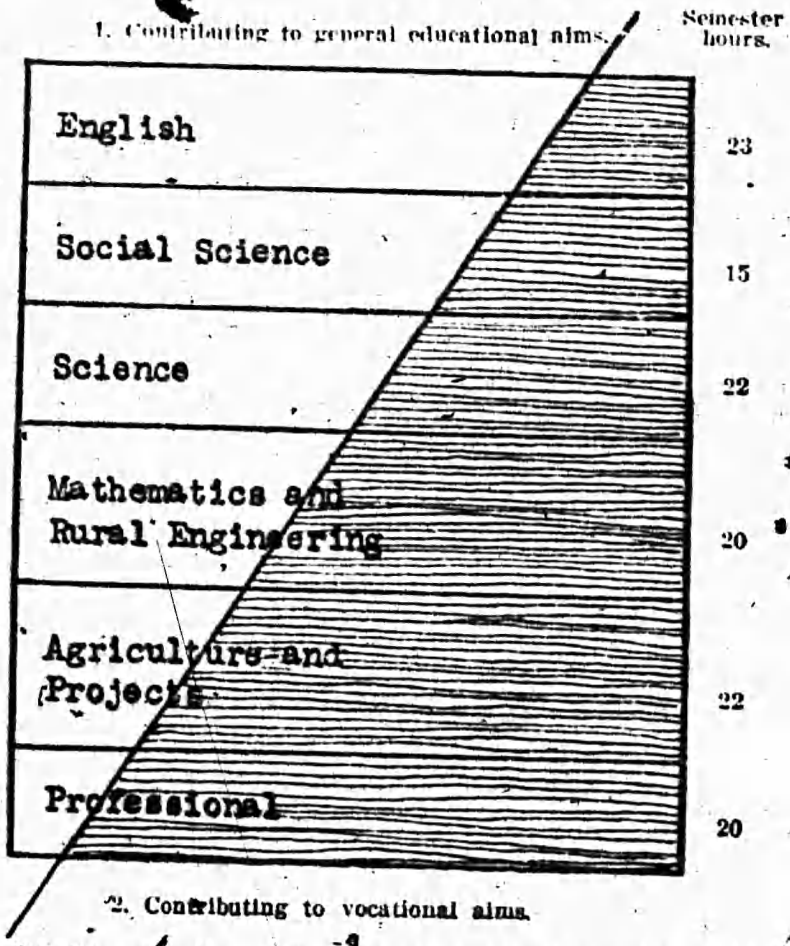
A study of the work in the curriculum, which is truly vocational, will reveal the fact that considerable of the work given under headings other than agriculture is actually contributing to the vocational aim. The diagram, given on page 50, shows graphically the relative proportion of time which is devoted to the larger subject classifications.

In each of these subject groups some of the work is general educational and some is specifically vocational. Exactly where the dividing line will fall is impossible to determine, because whether a piece of information contributes to make a better teacher of agriculture and a better farmer or whether it contributes only to a student's store of general knowledge it is impossible to say. The definitions of general education and of vocational knowledge in any field are capable of various interpretations, depending upon the individual's point of view.

According to the most commonly accepted standards, however, the line can be drawn as it is in the diagram, which shows that some of the work in each subject group is clearly vocational education and some is general education. To be vocational the work in the non-agricultural groups must be carefully planned and taught in such a way that the student will grasp and apply his knowledge to vocational ends. Herein lies the secret of the organization of this curriculum, which makes possible careful coordination between instructors and especially a certain focusing of all subjects on the vocational aim.

The means of accomplishing this combination is through careful planning of subject matter and point of view of courses, constant following up by some one who is held responsible for the educational direction of the curriculum, and the constant survey of what is being done, how it is being done, and above all, the willingness on the part of instructors to adapt their work to the big aim of the agricultural school.

Moreover a proper balance must be maintained. It would be a calamity, if all the English and literature and social science work



Relative proportion of time devoted to each of the subject groups.

were strictly vocational. This would result in producing students with a narrow outlook on life—students who saw everything from one viewpoint. An attempt is therefore made to keep the work according to the diagram. Part of each subject specifically contributes immediately to the aim—the preparation of teachers of agriculture—and part contributes to a broad general viewpoint—the viewpoint of a man who is not merely trained in agriculture.

During the first year of the college course, when the main object in agriculture is farm crops, the student must carry a crop project

of reasonable size. He does his project work on a business basis. The student is the manager. He decides when he will plant and what he will plant. He exercises his own powers of initiative and decision. He takes the consequences—failure or financial success.

There is, of course, a project instructor, who may also be connected with the economics and farm management activities of the agricultural school. This teacher meets with the students once a week or as often as he is needed. He helps them to get out plans. He acts as business agent for the agricultural school, when the students wish to borrow money or rent land and buildings. He is always ready to give help in securing information. He does not, however, order or direct students as to how their work shall be done.

Students must keep careful accounts. The data from these student accounts of agricultural projects are used in the farm management class as the point of departure in the study of larger management problems.

The projects for the second year deal with the management of animals. During the year the students study animal husbandry, a general introductory course, in which the time is divided among different instructors who take up, for example, dairying, poultry raising, the raising of beef cattle.

The third year allows students opportunities for specialization in an elected branch of animal husbandry.

The attitude of the instructors with regard to the agricultural project is *Hands off*. If things are going wrong, either through negligence or the lack of study and correlation by the student, that is the student's loss and he must suffer for it.

Difficulties which arise in connection with the project work are reported in the agricultural school's general teachers' meetings and are used as the basis of future classroom discussions. If something which seems wrong was caused by the student's lack of sufficient experience, sometimes a question will be asked or a hint given which sets the student to solving his problem.

It is unfortunate that the term "project" should be used, since it suggests secondary agricultural education and the so-called project at Hampton is distinctly not of secondary grade, but is of collegiate grade. The projects in farm crops and animal husbandry are administered on a different plan than those which are connected with secondary schools. They are used partly as a try-out ground for classroom and laboratory work, but chiefly they are used to give the widest possible scope for the development of the initiative of the young men who are following the college course in agriculture.

AIMS, METHODS, AND RESULTS OF CROP PROJECTS FOR 1921.

The aims, methods, and results of the projects for the year 1921, based on the report of the instructor who had charge of the first-year crop projects, follows:

The aims of the crop projects for 1921 were: (1) To develop initiative; (2) to develop responsibility; (3) to develop judgment; (4) to teach accurate and businesslike record keeping; (5) to teach the value and proper use of credit and prompt payment of obligations; (6) to develop a sensing of market demands; (7) to show the importance of timeliness and cost in cultural methods; and (8) to give practice in technical skills and cultural methods.

The methods follow:

(1) *Plan.*—The project must be conceived and followed through in detail in the student's mind. This was determined by questioning the plan.

(2) *Records.*—(*a*) The labor record, including hired, self, and horse; (*b*) the record of transactions, including receipts and expenses, bills receivable, and bills payable; and (*c*) the determining of factors.

(3) *Financing.*—Arrangements were made by students entirely. Students give notes with insurance, if required, use the school the same as an outside merchant, or pay cash.

(4) *Marketing.*—Left entirely with the student to find a market to sell goods and collect money.

(5) *Supervision.*—In all cases the instructor in charge kept his hands off, unless he was asked for help. This is the crux of the success of this work, in which initiative and judgment development are of prime importance. Accounts are checked up: help is given in referring students to sources of information when asked; crucial times in project development were noted for use in final round-table discussion.

The results were discussed by groups of students and instructors. Some of the following topics were considered: (1) Good and poor management; (2) the relation of good management to profit; (3) size of project (not acreage) and relation to profits; (4) good and poor use of labor; (5) relation of yields to cost per unit and to profits; (6) good and poor choice of crops to meet market demands; and (7) the returns per man hour (27 cents to $1.24) in 1921.

LEARNING BY DOING IS PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

The college course in agriculture aims to prepare teachers—teachers in the broadest sense—including county agents and extension service men. For this reason professional work begins early in the agricultural course.

Since the necessity of preparing men to teach in ways other than as classroom teachers is recognized and as occasion arises throughout the year, students are sent away for a day or more to get practice in assisting teachers at fairs, exhibits, and demonstrations, and in assisting county agents at farmers' meetings.

Time credit is given for this practice teaching, for a required amount of practice teaching must be done before a student may be graduated.

While this service afield may break into the continuity of an individual student's studies, it is felt that this plan of field service and classroom work will constantly keep before the young men of the agricultural school the all-important problem: namely, the preparation for efficient rural service.

This method of learning by doing as an aid to professional training is regarded as a process of reaching out into everyday life. It is carried on, not only as a part of the teacher-training work, but also as a part of other work as well.

Other examples of relating agricultural education to life follow: (1) A sociology class spent some time getting up a play which was planned to show why boys leave the farm and the conditions under which they will want to remain in the rural sections; (2) an English class attended a school dedication in the neighborhood to study the speeches and the general arrangement of the program.

The agricultural school, since the establishment of its collegiate work, has encouraged and aided its instructors in traveling, so that they might get a better grasp of the essential problems of their work.

The professional work, covering 20 semester hours, includes courses in educational psychology and methods of teaching.

LEARNING TO TEACH BY TEACHING.

With the bulk of practice teaching concentrated in the last year, why should some be required earlier in the course? The reason is that as soon as a student has had an opportunity to try teaching for himself he immediately has a different point of view toward the teaching which he is experiencing. After even a few attempts to teach, the student is able to understand and assimilate as a definite addition to his own knowledge the methods of his own teachers and the subject matter of the other professional work.

Practice teaching placed at the beginning of the course, however, would be too early for the proper appreciation by students of methods and also too early in fairness to the pupils who are being "practiced on." The group used for practice teaching in this early experience is a class of elementary students who are not regularly taking

agriculture, but are called together at extra times for lessons in agriculture. The pupil teachers are immediately faced with the problem of justifying their work.

The bulk of the practice teaching which comes in the last year of the course offers students a choice between the field of agricultural teaching and of extension work. In any case, the practice teaching is carried on away from Hampton and under the supervision of, and as assistant to, some teacher or county agent with whom cooperative arrangements have been made.

DOES AN AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL FARM PAY?

The school farm (1) supplies food, chiefly vegetables and milk, to the school instructors and boarding departments; (2) furnishes examples for and laboratory material of a wide variety to all the instructors who are teaching in the college agricultural course; (3) gives employment, instructive and remunerative, to students in the college course at odd hours in the winter and for more time in the summer; and (4) provides work, remunerative and also instructive, to preparatory students of the institute.

The treasurer's reports indicate that the combination of farming and teaching of farming has not paid a money profit, except for odd seasons or in one special division. There are good reasons, however, for this failure to secure money profits.

(1) Constant training of your students costs money. Fourteen new milkers, for example, must be initiated at the opening of school each fall. Hampton also feels bound, even with students who are taking work on the form primarily to earn money, to shift students' work occasionally so as to give proficiency to men in more than one line of modern farm practice.

(2) Where educational and productive activities are inextricably interrelated it is impossible fairly to separate the educational and productive work. Much of the educational load is usually borne by the productive expense account.

(3) The prices for products which the agricultural school sells have been considerably below the current market prices. During the financial year 1920–21, for example, milk, eggs, and poultry were sold to the teachers and to the boarding departments at $11,000 below the market prices. In some institutions, where prices are fixed by a business board, there is a tendency not to change prices often or during periods of rising prices. The agricultural accounts naturally show heavy deficits which should more properly have been borne by salary and by boarding department accounts. The Hampton farm, however, has paid market prices for the things which it has bought.

(4) An agricultural school farm must do work which a regulation farmer would not feel called upon to do. The agricultural school

has also had to bear the expense of caring for buildings which are usually too elaborate for ordinary farm needs.

There have been other important expense items, such as livery service, general upkeep of the farm for esthetic reasons, the showing of visitors around, and extra painting—all demanded of an institutional farm. A farmer who was guided by the idea of financial returns for his outlay of money probably would not give as much attention to some of the items listed above, as is necessarily required at an institution like Hampton. The money cost of many expense items on the Hampton farm have had to be charged against the expense of production. There are good reasons, therefore, why the Hampton farm shows and has shown a heavy debit balance.

The productive expense, however, should include charge for interest on investment and taxes, whenever an attempt is made to compare the school farm books with a commercial farmer's books.

The experience gained in combining educational and productive farm work suggests that it will be worth while to make a careful study of this whole matter of farm bookkeeping and educational results and then try to adopt a method of accounting for institutional farms which will put the farm on as firm a financial basis as possible.

TO WHAT EXTENT ARE LARGE FARMS NEEDED?

There are several reasons for discussing whether or not an institution like Hampton Institute should operate one or more large farms.

(1) Food supplies can now be readily bought on local markets. Formerly these supplies could not be secured in this manner.

(2) The agricultural graduates will be faced with the problem of intensive farming rather than with the problem of extensive farming.

(3) The agricultural projects supplant some of the necessity for supplying practice work for students.

It may therefore be questioned whether a very large farm is required to do the best work in training agriculturists and agricultural teachers.

FAR-REACHING AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK.

At one of the recent Hampton Institute conferences of negro county agents of Virginia 14 of the 22 men agents who were present had had training, either in full courses or short courses, at Hampton. This illustrates one way in which the agricultural school attempts to do extension work. Hampton spreads its ideas through well-trained graduates.

In cooperation with Hampton's director of extension work much help has been given farm men and women by sending from Hampton regular agricultural instructors to assist teachers in organizing groups in special lines of work.

County agents and farmers, to the number of 200 to 250, have made annual pilgrimages to Hampton to attend the annual meetings of the Hampton Farmers' Conference. At such meetings lectures and demonstrations in which the instructed as well as the instructors participate, have been the means of carrying the Hampton agricultural message to numerous rural communities in Virginia and adjoining States.

SOME AGRICULTURE PROVIDED FOR ALL STUDENTS.

The founders of the institute emphasizing the importance of a thorough understanding of agriculture for all students, whether they planned to follow farming as a calling or follow some other line of work, made some agriculture compulsory for all students. Under General Armstrong's guidance this work took the form of occasional lectures which were designed to give the student an appreciation of the physical and chemical sciences in their relation to farming.

Later, however, this work lost the atmosphere of appreciation of agriculture and took a more strictly vocational turn. This was natural, since the short courses in agriculture were given by teachers who were teaching regular agricultural students from a strictly vocational viewpoint.

Students who have chosen another calling should not study how to run incubators, how to mix fertilizers, how to make butter, and how to spray trees. They could not possibly study all these things in a 4-hour course, covering 36 weeks, and get very much training. Such students constitute a different problem from the regular, full-time students.

To find out what should be the point of view and content of a course for trade or business students should be a matter of special study; this Hampton has never adequately done. A study is now being made of this problem and, pending results, the academic agricultural course is divided into two parts. Each part comes four hours a week for one year.

The first section is for young men and is conducted by the regular farm management and economics instructor. It attempts to give students an insight into, and appreciation of, the financial and business problems which the farmer faces. There is also given a little technical instruction in the making of a home garden and in the handling of a home poultry flock.

The second section is for young women, many of whom will be called upon to teach nature study, or, as home makers, to manage the family garden. Their course consists in planting and caring for a garden. This is done on a class basis, but each individual has

specially designated responsibilities. There is also given some consideration of ornamental shrubs and flowers which are suitable for home and school grounds, as well as instruction in the handling of a home poultry flock. Class work consists mainly in a study of the elementary physical and biological problems of soils and of plant growth.

THE TRADE SCHOOL.

WILLIAM ANTHONY AERY.

Publication Secretary, Hampton Institute.

The Armstrong-Slater Memorial Trade School at Hampton Institute offers 11 four-year courses to ambitious negro and Indian youth and furnishes all-round training for negroes and Indians who wish to practice any one of the following trades: (1) Automobile mechanics; (2) blacksmithing; (3) bricklaying and plastering; (4) cabinetmaking; (5) carpentry; (6) machine work; (7) painting; (8) printing; (9) steam fitting and plumbing; (10) tailoring; and (11) wheelwrighting. By special arrangement with the director of the trade school a student may receive instruction in tinsmithing and upholstery.

The trade school is the result of an evolutionary process which may be clearly traced back to the founding of Hampton Institute by General Armstrong in 1868. Its daily work touches every phase of the institute's present-day life.

SECTION I. PRESENT AIMS AND METHODS.

To-day the construction of Hampton Institute buildings and the necessary repairs on 140 buildings are being satisfactorily done by student tradesmen.

STUDENT TRADESMEN CONSTRUCT AND REPAIR BUILDINGS.

Some years ago, when it became necessary to remodel the principal's home, the student tradesmen did the necessary tearing down and rebuilding. The tradesmen were happy to have an opportunity of doing well what professional builders considered a difficult piece of work.

Later, when the school officers decided to add a second story to the trade-school building, the student tradesmen performed the laborious and difficult task of raising the heavy roof, with jacks which they had built, and of lowering the roof on the newly made walls.

Then came the days of work which was devoted to finishing the interior of this large addition.

At another time the trade-school force was called upon to erect a $30,000, two-story brick building, now known as "Clarke Hall"—the gift of Mrs. Delia S. Clarke in memory of her husband, Charles Spears Clarke—and used as a Young Men's Christian Association building, the first negro-student Y. M. C. A. building in the United States.

Contracts were awarded to the trade-school departments and the student tradesmen solved the difficult problems of house building, including the laying of molded brick on seven-diameter columns, the building of flat arches, and the handling of full-size work.

These tradesmen worked as their predecessors had done at an earlier date in building the school's steam laundry, the domestic science and agricultural building, Cleveland Hall, which contains a large section of the student's dining hall and a comfortable dormitory for girls, the large school barn, and in converting the old Huntington Industrial Works and Pierce Machine Shop into dormitories for the use of boys.

A few years ago Mrs. D. Willis James, of New York, gave Hampton Institute a sum of money for the construction of an up-to-date, four-story, fireproof boys' dormitory, which would accommodate about 175 students. The entire work on this $100,000 building was done by Hampton tradesmen.

TRADE WORK BASED ON FIRM FOUNDATIONS OF KNOWLEDGE.

Behind the work of putting up new buildings or making necessary repairs on old buildings, there is the greater work of equipping negro and Indian tradesmen through systematic instruction in the technical side of their work.

The carpenter and the cabinetmaker, for example, learn, when they enter the technical shop, that they must take good care of the tools and machines. The newcomers are taught to work from shop drawings and to strive for accuracy and neatness in a course in joinery. They make simple, useful, attractive articles, such as tables, cases, stands, and other articles that they can use in their homes.

The course in joinery through the making of useful articles and exercise pieces gives the students practice in the squaring of pieces of wood, blocking up ends, sawing to given marks, chiseling, the making of joints—butt, miter, lap, mortise and tenon, and dovetail.

After the boys have learned to do well and on a reduced scale the technical work with which every good carpenter should be familiar, they then apply their skill and knowledge to the making of that which is useful and attractive.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE FROM THE WATER FRONT.

A. THE ARMSTRONG-SLATER MEMORIAL TRADE SCHOOL.

B. BRICKLAYING AND PLASTERING.

A class at work on one of the new buildings.

STUDENTS EARLY SHOULDER RESPONSIBILITIES.

The negro or Indian boy who enters the blacksmith shop is immediately put to work at his trade. He is shown how to move about his forge in a comfortable, natural manner. He is shown how to build a fire properly.

At every turn, the boy is shown not only how to do certain important trade tasks but he is given the why and wherefore of the processes which enter into the blacksmithing trade. The beginner in the blacksmith shop, for example, is not merely a shop helper or a handy man who mechanically does the striking for another man or simply waits on some superior workman. From the start, the blacksmith in the making comes in touch with common-sense, practical instruction. He learns his first lessons partly through imitation, for shop demonstrations are frequent. He is encouraged to ask questions and to work out satisfactory answers. If the task is that of building properly a forge fire, the properties of coal, the heating of iron, and the control of the blast are questions which receive careful attention.

REAL CORRELATION PRACTICED.

In the industrial life of the institute the blacksmith shop does its quota of work and helps to develop the latent powers of the student. Whenever a wagon is built in the wheelwright shop, it is passed to the blacksmiths to have the necessary ironwork properly fitted. The axles are welded; the wheels are fitted with tires; and the springs are fastened to the wagon gear. The iron which is used on the wagon is carefully measured, worked into shape, and properly fitted on the body and gear which have been built by the wheelwrights.

When fire escapes and fire ladders were needed for the dormitories the blacksmiths were called into service. When ornamental ironwork was called for in the construction of some of the newer school buildings, notably the Y. M. C. A. and the principal's house, the blacksmiths undertook the work.

The trade-school blacksmiths and wheelwrights do the necessary repair work on farm implements and farm wagons which are in daily use on the home farm and at "Shellbanks."

BRICKLAYERS AND PLASTERERS.

The students in the bricklaying and plastering department touch the Hampton Institute life at many points. They set boilers in the power house; build the bake ovens which are used in the kitchens; repair the plastering in the school buildings; make and keep in repair all the granolithic walks; and do the necessary brick, plaster, and concrete construction work in connection with the erection of new buildings.

When one of the largest of the boys' dormitories was converted from an open dormitory into one with inclosed rooms for two and three students each, the students in the bricklaying and plastering department rendered valuable service.

STUDENTS BUILD MACHINES AND THEN USE THEM.

In the trade-school machine shop there are now in daily use machines worth several thousand dollars which have been built by student tradesmen. These machines include a 16-inch turret lathe with an 8-foot bed, a 22-inch turret lathe, three drill presses, a speed lathe, an emery-grind stand, polishing stands, a twist-drill grinder, and a number of special tools for doing the larger and more complicated pieces of work.

For the institute the machine shop has built and riveted together near the power house a large coal-hoisting frame. It has also done important repair work on machinery in daily use in the school's steam laundry, in the agricultural department, in the steam, electrical, and ice plants, and in other trade-school shops.

WORK ON MODERN DORMITORY.

The work of the students of plumbing and steamfitting the James Hall dormitory, as on other large buildings, covered the wide range of trade activities included in those trades.

The students of painting paint buildings, roofs, and porches. They paint, varnish, and wax floors. They help preserve screens, fences, boats, carriages, wagons, carts, and automobiles. They paint, varnish, and stain furniture. They paper and kalsomine rooms.

STUDENTS HELP THE INSTITUTE TO REACH THE PUBLIC.

Those who study printing cooperate in producing attractive invitations, programs, and booklets.

Further opportunity is afforded whenever the school attempts to reach the colored rural teachers with helpful information concerning industrial subjects, club work for boys and girls, men and women, and cooking, sewing, home-making or community-improvement methods.

SALABLE PRODUCTS MADE.

The student tradesmen, besides doing a great deal of practical work for the institute itself, do commercial work which compares favorably with that which seasoned journeymen do elsewhere. The institute's treasurer, Frank K. Rogers, in his report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1921, stated that the trade-school sales to the institute amounted to $165,815; and to others, $48,720. These figures will give some idea of the bulk of operations which are carried on by the trade school.

Commercial work, because of its value to the students in training them to measure up to journeyman standards and disinterested commercial tests, is done in all the trade-school shops. People are glad to buy the products, not because they are cheap, but because they are good.

For the blacksmiths and wheelwrights this commercial work includes the making of railroad and wharf trucks in some 20-odd styles, the building and repairing of wagons, as well as a variety of carts and wheelbarrows, and the building and repairing of automobile bodies for commercial and pleasure cars.

Attractive andirons, sets of fire tools, fire screens, well-made forging tools, building forgings, fire escapes, and special, tempered steel tools—these are some of the interesting commercial products of the Hampton blacksmith shop.

THE BOY NOT A MERE TOOL.

The students of mechanic arts build gasoline engines. "The Hampton Institute Gear," patented by the instructor in the machine shop and turned over to the trade school, is a marine reverse gear, which is made, in limited numbers, in sizes ranging from 8 to 60 horsepower. These gears have been sold for service in boats plying on American and foreign waters.

Since the work in the machine shop, as in all the other trade-school departments, has an important educational aspect and is not purely commercial, the number of separators, for example, which is built annually is arbitrarily limited. The aim of the machine shop, and, indeed, of all shops or departments at Hampton, is to use its equipment for the best interest of the boy and not to make the boy a mere shop tool.

TAILORS MAKE UNIFORMS AND CIVILIAN CLOTHES.

Before the introduction of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps unit at Hampton Institute the students in the tailoring department made many uniforms for the Hampton cadets. To-day these tailors make citizens' clothes for the instructors and students, as well as for others. They also make tailored suits for ladies, overcoats, dress suits, sport suits, and officers' uniforms.

Cleaning, pressing, and repair work is also carried on for the numerous student and instructional forces.

MODERN POWER-DRIVEN MACHINES USED BY STUDENT TRADESMEN.

In the printing department the students handle a large bulk of diversified commercial work, ranging from poster printing to the production of good-sized pamphlets and books, which requires the use of modern power-driven machines.

With modern shoe-repairing machinery, students take care of the footwear of over 800 boarding students and some 200 Hampton Institute workers. These same students do harness repair work for the agricultural school.

In an industrial village, such as Hampton Institute, there must be a harmony of interest and policy. When a department needs something which the trade school can and should furnish, on account of its equipment and personnel, it is most important that the trade school should do its share to furnish the product or service which is needed.

In any discussion, therefore, of the commercial work of the Hampton Institute trade school, it is only fair to say that the work which is done for the institute should be credited to the commercial output of the trade school.

STUDENT TRADESMEN RECEIVE TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

Behind all forms of commercial work, whether directly for the institute or indirectly for the general public, there is the problem of giving training to student tradesmen in technical work.

In performing technical exercises and applying fundamental principles of carpentry to common forms of construction and repair work, the student has to learn the theory and practice of board measure and estimates. For example, under the heading of "Trade mathematics," the carpenters and cabinetmakers learn together in the technical carpenter shop the common methods of making calculations which are involved in trade problems. They are taught to apply the fundamental processes of mathematics to such problems as figuring the amount and cost of materials which are required for specific pieces of work. Here the aims are speed and accuracy.

Student tradesmen construct in the technical shop full-size door and window frames. They learn how to put on the common forms of hardware. In all these operations they work from shop drawings. They learn to use the ordinary woodworking machines and they also learn how to manage individual electric motors.

CARPENTRY TAUGHT BY THE PROJECT METHOD.

One piece of interesting and valuable technical work which has commanded considerable notice is a series of dormer windows, built by senior tradesmen working in pairs and within set limits as to space. The instructor, after explaining to the students the principles of dormer-window construction, gives each pair of student workmen the width of the desired dormer from outside shingle to outside shingle and the size of the glass opening. Then he requires a rough sketch, a design, a working drawing, and an estimate of the material which will be needed to complete the dormer window.

To do satisfactorily this piece of technical work; the students must use their initiative and judgment. The instructor gives no help until he is called upon. If in his judgment the students should work out their own salvation, he offers nothing more than a suggestion or he simply raises one or two questions, the answers to which may help in the solving of the students' difficulties.

If a real need arises, the instructor stops to discuss the problem with the whole group that is at work on the dormer-window project. The aim here is to train men to think effectively and save them from the weakening effects of too much assistance.

ROOF-BUILDING MADE A TEST OF TRADE SKILL.

Another interesting piece of technical work in carpentry, which is a stimulating project undertaken by senior tradesmen, is that of making a model of a fairly difficult roof, about one-sixth of the full size, from an original design and drawing made by a student tradesman in the drafting room.

Before he begins his model, the student is given a sheet of paper and a steel square. He is then required to find all the lengths and cuts of the rafters. He next figures the actual area of the roof, which is a neat and worth-while problem in mensuration. He makes the necessary allowances for waste.

The next step is to find the number and the cost of rafters, which is a practical application of real trade arithmetic. All this information must be furnished to the instructors and approved before the student is allowed to get a single stick of lumber.

When all the preliminary work for his model roof has been done, he must then pick out at one selection the right kind of lumber, enough and not too much.

His next step in making the model roof is to cut out all his work before he begins to do any nailing.

THE BLACKSMITH LEARNS HOW TO MAKE HIS TOOLS.

After the student has learned in the blacksmith shop to make his forge fire, he is given a piece of iron about half an inch in diameter and is first required to make a square point on one end. From that he passes on to the making of a round point and then a flat one.

Meanwhile, he learns how to handle the blacksmith's hammer. Then, too, he learns more and more about the handling of his forge fire.

After the student has learned how to shape and draw out iron, he is given some simple problem in welding. He is then required to do work which combines shaping and welding.

Step by step, the student blacksmith turns out, according to specifications and blue-print drawings, some 70-odd technical exercises during his early period of training. Drawing out iron, making staples, bending rings, making a hook and eye, developing a gate hook; fashioning bolts and nuts of various sizes and shapes, welding rings, constructing braces, chain links, square bands, making chisels, drills, springs, lathe tools, horseshoes, carriage steps, scrapers—these are some of the technical exercises in iron and steel which the blacksmith learns to do.

THEORY AND GOOD MODERN TRADE PRACTICE COMBINED.

The course in bricklaying and plastering, as in the other trade courses, consists of tasks of graduated difficulty. Students learn in the theory-room how to build a small corner, consisting of 10 or 12 courses; how to lay walls in American and other bonds; how to raise a wall that must be built to a given line; how to do foundation and retaining-wall work; how to construct piers, chimneys, and fireplaces; how to lay off and construct segmental, circular, and elliptical arches. This technical work, which is done indoors, is full size and is selected, as far as possible, from some part of an institute building which is used as a pattern.

Laying bricks carefully and neatly to a given straight line, plumbing corners accurately, working with one another without friction, following blueprints exactly, tackling with enthusiasm difficult repair jobs, getting ready to do things in the work-a-day world by doing practical work in a practical way during school days, combining theory and good modern trade practice—these are some of the important lessons learned in the technical branch of the bricklaying and plastering course.

While the machinists tradesmen follow a given course of graduated instruction, there is some leeway given to them because considerable attention is paid to repair work. The machine-shop exercises, which may be given when the right kind of commercial work is not available, may be roughly grouped as follows: Filing to line or gauge; chipping and filing; bolting pieces together; hand-tool work; use of calipers and bevel square; handling small forgings; shaper work; turning; use of milling machine and planer. The technical work includes vise work, speed lathe work, drill press work, shaper and planer work, lathe work, and milling-machine work. Work is done, in most cases, from shop drawings or sketches.

SHOP TALKS BRING TRADES CLOSE TO LIFE.

Hampton Institute aims to have the students see their tasks in relation to life as a whole. In the trade-school departments the

students are given helpful shop talks at least once a week and are shown by their instructors how to do those tasks which develop both skill and reasoning power.

The carpenters and cabinetmakers, for example, discuss the uses and special purposes of woods; the seasoning and drying of lumber; framing joints; the general method of house framing; the sizes of timbers for framing purposes; roof framing; lumber estimating; hardwood estimating; trade terms and their meanings.

The bricklayers and plasterers discuss the methods and operations involved in brickmaking; the manufacture and use of cement; the principles of building construction; and the meaning of important trade and technical terms.

The machinists discuss the handling of machine tools and the correct way of using them; gearing up a machine, when the index is lost; the handling of lathe tools; the speed of lathes; steam pumps; hydraulic rams; taper work; and the screw-thread calculator.

The tailors discuss the kinds of materials with which they work—canvas, haircloth, linings, cotton and woolen goods; methods of judging the quality of goods by the texture of the fiber; the costs of running a tailoring business; and methods of buying goods and tailors' findings.

The plumbers and steamfitters discuss the construction and handling of safety valves, pumps, boilers, radiators, piping of various materials, and patterns; the use and cost of plumbing materials; the relation of plumbing and steamfitting to construction work; the relation of sanitary plumbing to good health, both public and individual; the essentials of modern mechanics; and the handling of fire-fighting apparatus.

The shop talks bring the trades close to life. The instructors are able to have the students in training explain to one another the lessons that they have learned; state their own mistakes and problems; and ask questions which all the students need to have answered.

ALL-ROUND TRAINING GIVEN THE TRADESMEN.

The trade-school program of studies, which is given below, will give the student of trade education a bird's-eye view of the present course of study in the Armstrong-Slater memorial trade school.

TRADE-SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDIES IN 1922–23.

The figures here given indicate the number of 50-minute periods per week. The drill periods are one hour.

First year.—General mathematics, 5; English, 5; literature, 4; singing, 1; military drill, 2; trade subjects, including theory, trade mathematics, drafting, and trade practice, 43.

Second year.—General science, 5; English, 5; literature, 4; Bible, 3; singing, 1; military drill, 3; trade subjects, including theory, trade mathematics, drafting, and trade practice, 43.

Third year (one week).—Social science, 5; English, 5; general history, 5; military drill, 3; business procedure, 5; chemistry, 12; singing, 1; current events, 1; trade technical subjects, including theory, trade mathematics, and drafting, 23.

Alternate week.—Social science, 5; English, 5; general history, 5; military drill, 3; trade practice, 43.

Fourth year (one week).—American history, 5; English, 5; literature, 4; current events, 1; military drill, 3; physics, 12; trade technical subjects, including estimating and specifications, shop management, and drafting, 23.

Alternate week.—American history, 5; English, 5; literature, 4; current events, 1; military drill, 3; trade practice, 43. Students in the third year alternate with those who are in the fourth year so that the two groups will not have trade practice in the same week.

TRADESMEN ACTIVE IN STUDENT LIFE.

The student tradesmen in their small amount of free time, from 5 until 6 o'clock on five afternoons, from 1 until 6 o'clock on Saturday afternoon, and from 9 until 9.45 at night, take active part in the institute's athletic program, in the choir, in the band, in the literary and social societies. A keen interest is shown in all the regular student activities.

The tradesmen are paid for their commercial work. During the early months of their course students can not expect to earn any wages. During the first year of the course students need from $100 to $160 for their living expenses and other charges. While some students are able, after the first year of their trade course, to earn enough money with which to meet their necessary expenses, Hampton does not guarantee students a regular wage.

Students are carefully graded on their work. The following five-point scale is used in rating men every two months for speed, accuracy, judgment, initiative, earnestness, neatness, and responsibility in their shopwork: A, excellent; B, above average; C, average; D, below average; and E, failure.

SECTION II. HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TRADE SCHOOL.

Wrote General Armstrong in the school catalogue of 1870–71:

> This institute should, I think, be polytechnic, growing step by step, adding new industries as the old ones shall become established and remunerative, thus enlarging the limits of paying labor and increasing the attendance.

Industrial work was not made self-supporting, however, because it was thought unwise to sacrifice training facilities for profits.

LABOR REQUIRED OF ALL.

Labor for the purposes of discipline and instruction has always been emphasized at Hampton. The catalogue of 1870–71 states:

> Young men and women, whose parents desire that they shall not be taken out of school to work, may, upon payment of $10 per month, attend school without interruption, but will nevertheless be required to labor on Saturdays and at such hours as such industries may be assigned them.

Through liberal grants made by the Freedmen's Bureau and donations from northern friends there was developed in 1871–72 "an industrial department for the manufacture of clothing," and practical instruction was given boys and girls in the different varieties of sewing machines. In the so-called mechanical course, to which reference is made in the catalogue of 1871–72, instruction was also given in household industries, in penmanship, in freehand drawing, in mechanical drawing, in printing, and in "studies of the normal course at discretion."

SIMPLICITY OF EQUIPMENT.

The simplicity and inexpensiveness of the early system of industrial education at Hampton are clearly shown in the case of the printing department. In 1872–73, the first manager, W. J. Butterfield, reported that a firm of New York had presented the printing department with a hand-stop cylinder press, worth $2,250; that another firm had donated nearly $300 worth of type; and that the shop now had "excellent facilities for doing book work, pamphlet, and newspaper work." General Armstrong adds the statement that "the various branches of the printing trade are taught and the *Southern Workman* is published."

In 1874 General Armstrong recommended "that the material of the barracks [old hospital barracks that once served the sick and wounded at Camp Hamilton], formerly used as the girls' quarters, be used in building a shop for students who are learning trades."

DEVELOPMENT OF WORK SYSTEM.

The work system developed rapidly. In 1874–75 General Armstrong reported the following figures:

Boys at work.—Farm, 90; printing office, 3; painters, 3; carpenters, 4; coopers, 3; shoemakers, 3; janitors, 4; office duty, 2; mail carriers, 2; police and general duty, 6; day scholars on orderly duty, 19; teaching, 2.

Girls at work.—Industrial room, 72; housework, 6; day scholars with no work, 11.

In these figures are found the beginnings of some important departments of work.

TWO THEORIES UNDERLIE THE MANUAL-LABOR SYSTEM.

Wrote General Armstrong in 1876:

Whenever a manual-labor system is attempted, it should be carefully adjusted to the demands of scientific and practical education. The question at once arises what this manual labor should be. There are two theories, of which the first is that its entire aim should be to give the means to students of supporting themselves, that a profitable farm on a very large scale should enable a large numbers of students to support themselves by agriculture and that workshops on a large scale for the manufacture of some simple fabrics of universal consumption should enable a large number of students to support themselves by mechanic arts; that in both these cases the main theory should be self-supporting industry and not educational industry.

The second theory is that the primary object of the manual labor in both departments should be educational; that is, that the work should be first of all done with a view to perfect the student in the best processes and make him scientifically and practically a first-class agriculturist and mechanic.

While the first of these theories may at times be desirable, the second is essential.

HAMPTON'S INDUSTRIAL SYSTEM IN 1878.

By 1878 the following industries, in which boys and girls were employed, were well under way at Hampton Institute:

The farm, with bone grinding, grist mill, soap making, blacksmith's shop, butcher's shop, and milk dairy; the engineer's department, with knitting machines, broom shop, shop for iron work, rag-carpet weaving, and carpenter shop; girls' industrial department, for making and mending garments, and learning to sew by hand and machine; and household work, including washing, ironing, table duty, and cooking lessons.

The work system figures for 1878–79 follows:

Boys at work.—Farm, 64; Indian training shop, 40; day scholars on orderly duty, 19; waiters, 18; knitting room, 15; general duty, 14; janitors, 11; laundry, 8; carpenters, 5; engineers' department, 5; office duty, 5; shoemakers, 3; blacksmiths, 3; employed by teachers, 3; brickmakers, 2; mail carrier 1; greenhouse, 1; painter, 1; tailor, 1; harness maker, 1; weaving rag carpet, 1.

Girls at work.—Housework, 78; industrial room, 39; laundry, 34; day scholars with no work, 21; knitting room, 2.

A plan was worked out for giving students work which has disciplinary and educational value. General Armstrong could honestly say:

Give us the workshops and we will send men out of them. If the friends of Hampton are ready to pay the increased cost of giving a practical education, by training both hand and head, the work can be done here and the student will be fitted for life far better than he would be without that drill.

In 1879–80 General Armstrong wrote:

Able-bodied, quick, and reliable young men without money and eager for an education are encouraged to apply for admission on the following terms: To work steadily an entire year in the school sawmill and woodworking factory or on the farm, studing two hours every night. Wages, from $8 to $10 a

month, according to capacity and merit. Earnings to be saved for future school expenses, excepting, say, $3 a month for clothing. Such students are taken on a three months' probation to test both bodily and mental capacity. One of good mental and working powers and economical habits can readily fit himself for the junior class of the school by a year's night study and enter it with about $100 to his credit. * * * The object of this offer is to make this class of students better workmen and secure them an education; not for them to make money, though very rarely could or would they elsewhere save as much in the same time.

HUNTINGTON INDUSTRIAL WORKS FOUNDED.

General Armstrong reported in 1879 that a workshop had been commenced. He made a plea for $12,000 to complete it. He also announced the gift of a new and improved 60-horsepower engine, with boiler, valued at $4,000. He stated that the building would be a two-story frame structure on a brick basement, 140 by 50 feet, which would require 200,000 bricks—all to be made on the institute's grounds, mostly by student labor. He also referred to the need of receiving $6,000 at once to install a sawmill which could be used to saw logs into usable lumber for the upper part of the new workshop.

The sawmill, according to report in 1880, had to remain idle about one-fourth of the time on account of the lack of capital with which to purchase an adequate supply of logs. From September, 1879, to June, 1880, 15 labor students and a good manager had sawed 1,200,000 feet of lumber which the school used or sold at good prices.

On the temporarily covered brick foundation, about 11 feet high, another story, which was about 16 feet high, was erected and supplied with wood-working machinery to produce building material of every kind. The cost of the building and machinery at $15,000 was assumed by Collis P. Huntington, of New York, "as a contribution for the benefit of the colored race."

These details have been given to show the step-by-step process by which the so-called Huntington industrial works at Hampton grew.

WORK CARRIED ON FOR STUDENTS' BENEFIT.

At this early stage of industrial education at Hampton there was no sharp differentiation of organization. In 1881, for example, 59 young men were at work all day in the Huntington industrial works, in the knitting room, and in other industries. These students studied two hours each evening. Eight students in the engineer's department did nearly all the gas and steam fitting and the ironwork of the school. Brickmaking, wheelwrighting, and blacksmithing were under the care of the farm manager who employed 10 students for this trade work. The farm manager also directed the brickmaking at the rate of 500,000 bricks per year. This work, however, was

done chiefly by "outside hands." The printing office employed one negro and two Indian students and five ex-students, two of whom were girls.

INDUSTRIAL EQUIPMENT GROWS.

In 1882 a new building was completed, which was the gift of Mrs. Valeria Stone, of Malden, Mass. This building provided accommodations for the following departments or shops: (1) Printing office, to which a small bindery had been added; (2) knitting room; (3) shoe factory; and (4) girls' industrial room and tailoring establishment.

Again in 1882 General Armstrong announced that Moses Pierce had offered $4,000 for a new, two-story brick workshop, 60 by 40 feet, in which a bone mill and gristmill could be placed to great advantage. This item of equipment was nearly completed in 1883.

HAMPTON INDIANS' WORK FOR UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT.

For the Indians, General Armstrong made a plea in 1882 for "a building to contain a shoe factory and repair shop, a harness shop, a tin shop, a blacksmith and wheelwright shop, substantially built," which would cost $5,500. He announced that $1,750 had already been subscribed. A little later General Armstrong reported that the Indian workshop was making for the Indian Service in Washington, to be used in the West, 2,000 pairs of shoes and 70 sets of double plow harness.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION BEGINS IN 1886.

In 1886 General Armstrong made the first mention of a technical school. He said:

> With a grant of $1,000 from the Slater fund * * * a shop for technical training in the use of carpenter's tools was opened in March last [1886] * * * Ten benches are fitted up completely with carpenter's tools. Lessons of 2½ hours are given to classes of from 6 to 10, including both young men and women. * * * The entire senior class of 15 has two weekly lessons. * * * All are taught the use of the hammer, the plane, the saw, and the chisel; also the simple principles of housebuilding and how to make useful articles for school use.

EXPANSION OF TECHNICAL COURSES.

In 1892 the school catalogue announced that three-year courses in carpentry and woodworking, harnessmaking, shoemaking, wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, tinsmithing, housepainting, printing, tailoring, steam engineering, gasfitting, and the rudiments of the machinist's trade were being taught on the apprenticeship basis.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND LEADERS.

The second period of industrial training opened in 1893 and closed with Doctor Frissell's death in 1917.

In order that the trade teaching might be more thoroughly organized, a one-story building was erected in 1896, making provision for technical instruction in nine trades, the practical work in the various trades being still carried on at that time in separate shops.

In 1894 the industrial work was divided into three classes: (1) Technical work, the purpose of which was "to open the minds of the students in as many directions as possible" and "to give a varied and reasonable degree of skill in the use of different kinds of tools," including instruction in housework and in domestic training; (2) regular trade work, the purpose of which was primarily the education of the student and secondarily the support of the student, including, for girls, three-year courses in tailoring, shirt making, and dressmaking," and for boys three-year courses in "agriculture, blacksmithing, carpentry, harness making, painting, printing, planing-machine work, shoemaking, tailoring, and wheelwrighting"; and (3) those industries which, although of educational value, had "for their chief object the self-support of the student," including "housework, laundry work, sewing and mending, machine knitting, tinning, steam sawing, and farming."

TRADES AND INDUSTRIES IN THE 1896 PROGRAM.

In 1896 an important forward step was made. A system of training in the various trades—"carpentry, blacksmithing, bricklaying and plastering, wheelwrighting, painting, and machinist trades"—was introduced as a preparation for entrance to the industries in which there was a regular course of instruction covering from one to three years.

It was discovered that those who took the trade work should have a good educational foundation. Doctor Frissell had said in 1895:

Only those have been allowed to take trades who passed a certain grade in their entrance examination. The preference was given to those who passed the best examination. The result has been that many bright students have entered the shops, spending all day at their work and going to school at night.

In 1895 the first trade certificates were awarded. Previous to that time a large number of students had finished trade courses but had not received this recognition.

As a result of this training, shops where young colored men have had an opportunity to learn trades were started in many of the country districts of Virginia and other Southern States by Hampton graduates. A number of State schools in the South were also supplied with industrial teachers. But it was evident that in order to

supply the demand in furnishing teachers of trades, the young people should be given more of the principles that underlie mechanical work.

DR. FRISSELL CRITICIZES INDUSTRIAL SYSTEM.

In 1896 Doctor Frissell called the trustees' attention to the fact that:

> The system of trade teaching which has prevailed at Hampton, though the only one practicable in the earlier days, was becoming expensive both as regards time and money.
>
> Boys and girls have been placed in our shops immediately upon their entrance into the school. Many of them have not had sufficient intelligence to make good tradesmen. Others were found, after months of trial, to be possessed of little mechanical skill. In this way much time and labor have been expended by foremen of the shops upon students who were not able to appreciate or make use of the instruction given.

In order to enable the colored people more fully to enter the trades in the South, Dr. Frissell and his associates cooperated with the trustees of the John F. Slater fund to secure money for a modern trades building.

In November, 1896, the Armstrong-Slater memorial trade school building was opened. It marked a most important epoch in the school's history, as it was an advanced step toward higher training in the mechanic arts for the Indian and the negro.

In 1896 the aim of the trade school was to devote itself entirely to instruction without regard to production, giving to the young people the principles of different trades as rapidly as possible, and then sending them into the school shops to obtain the knowledge of practical work which will be necessary to prepare them thoroughly to be trade instructors, foremen, and leaders in industry.

In 1896-97 the following 13 three-year trade courses were offered: "Carpentry and joinery; bricklaying and plastering; machine work; blacksmithing; wheelwrighting; painting; cabinetwork; tinsmithing; steam engineering; tailoring; shoemaking; harnessmaking and carriage trimming; printing"; and a two-year course in mechanical drawing. A three-grade course in dressmaking was also outlined.

DIVISION OF TIME.

In 1896-97 the division of time in the trade courses was as follows: The first year was spent in the trade school and the other two years were spent in the industries. A part of the day was given to "academic study, including mathematics, physics, and English," and a part was given to mechanical and free-hand drawing. The term lasted 10 months. After the students entered the industries they received wages for full-time work and attended night school. Thus the apprenticeship system gave way to the systematic training.

BETTER-TRAINED MEN SELECTED FOR TRADE EDUCATION.

There was a steady development in the direction of selecting a better-trained group for the expensive trade instruction. In 1898 Doctor Frissell stated:

> It is intended that no student shall be admitted to the trade school until he has demonstrated in the manual-training department his aptitude for a trade and has sufficient knowledge of English, mathematics, and physics to make his work intelligent.
>
> The school's productive industries, which were formerly used as the stepping-stone to the academic department, are to be thrown open now only to those who have finished a year in the trade school and will thus afford them practice in actual business with work for the market.

As a result a number of students were given the opportunity of working in wood and iron at the Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co.'s plant, and such good work was done that officers of the shipyard asked for others similarly trained.

Men who had been sent to contractors in Portsmouth and Farmville for work in brick and wood had made correspondingly good records.

Referring to the rising standard for admission to the trade school, Doctor Frissell said in 1900:

> It can be readily seen that the broader a student's previous intellectual training, the greater his ability to master the geometrical problems underlying mechanical drawing and the complicated details that belong to the making of contracts.

In 1901 Doctor Frissell also said:

> In all the trades, instruction is made the prominent feature, and only so much of productive industry is allowed as will help the students to gain a practical knowledge of the trade.

The trade "clinic" was introduced in 1901. [illegible] an unusual sight—and is not to-day—"to see a body of students discussing the best method of 'operating' upon a broken carriage or piece of furniture." This idea was later applied to all the trade departments.

TRADE WORK AND ACADEMIC STUDIES CORRELATED.

In 1901 the finishing class in carpentry took for half the year one-half day each at bricklaying, painting, and tinsmithing, four hours at wood turning, and six hours at designing small houses and estimating the material for them. The remainder of the time each week was spent at the carpenter's bench.

> It was also urged that the larger number of graduates ought to combine farming and the teaching of a country public school with the practice of a trade—carpentry, blacksmithing, wheelwrighting, painting, or a combination of two or more of these. Some knowledge of bricklaying, tinning, and harness-making is also desirable.

The correlation of trade-school work and academic studies was also thoroughly worked out and carried into everyday school practice. The problems in arithmetic are taken from the shops and the farm. The work in English has to do largely with the everyday experiences of the students. Agriculture and geography are closely connected. The art instruction is related to the work of the manual-training courses.

COMPARISON OF METHODS.

By 1904 Doctor Frissell noted that:

> After careful comparison of a system in which work in the shop is placed first, and academic studies made subsidiary, and one in which academic instruction is put first, and handwork is made secondary, the whole corps of Hampton teachers agree that the former system results in a greater gain in character, in initiative, and in intellectual force.

In 1904 nearly three-fourth of all the boys at Hampton Institute were taking trades, were devoting a large part of the day to the work of the hands, and were giving their evenings to study and classroom work, according to Doctor Frissell. In 1894 the mass of the students at Hampton were in the day school and only a small number were enrolled as trade students.

In 1910 Doctor Frissell reported that a trade certificate was not given to any student who had not completed the equivalent of a grammar-school course. He said:

> The demand for trades is so great, that it has been possible gradually to raise the entrance requirements and they are to-day higher for the trade school than for the academic department.

THE TRADE SCHOOL AND WAR SERVICE.

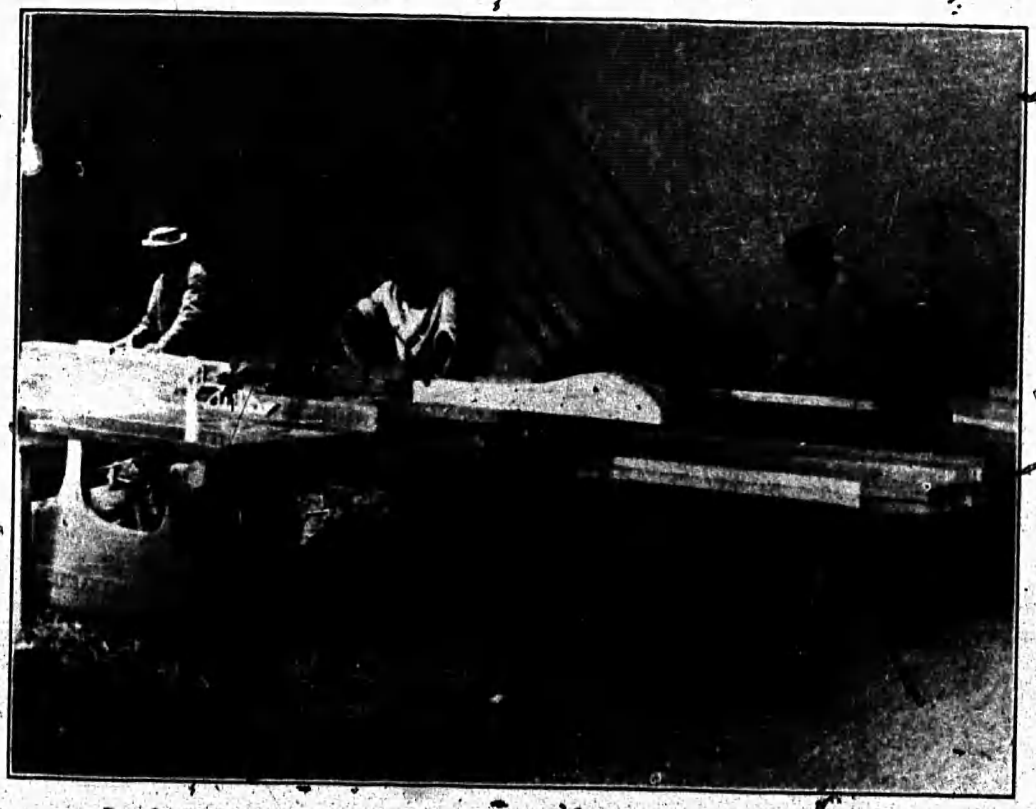
The service rendered by Hampton Institute during the World War covered many fields. Doctor Phenix reports that the trade-school students—

> have repaired gas engines for submarine chasers and done other work for the United States Navy; made special instruments for the Coast Artillery, trucks for the embarkation camps, and 177 pieces of furniture for the drafting rooms at the Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co.; and done special machine work for the airplanes at Langley Field, as well as some motor work for the embarkation camps.

In order to develop the industrial resources of the Nation, there were trained in cooperation with the War Department's committee on education and special training, 1,027 "fighting mechanics," who were distributed among 14 classes, as follows:

Automobile mechanics	96	Carpenters	97
Army clerks	60	Electric wiremen	91
Blacksmiths	20	Horseshoers	106

A. THE CARPENTER SHOP.



B. CARPENTER CLASS USING THE WOODWORKING MACHINES.

A. STUDYING THE DESIGNS OF ROOFS.

Students make model roofs about one-sixth of full size, based on accurate drawings.

B. BUILDING A 22-INCH TURRET LATHE IN THE MACHINE SHOP.

Leather workers	18	Telegraphers	30
Machinists	56	Truck drivers	272
Pipe fitters	53	Wheelwrights	47
Radio operators	67	Cooks	14

The present trade-school schedule allots to class work during the four-year course, including military instruction and drill, about 3,500 hours; to direct trade work—that is, actual practice with one's hands—about 4,000 hours. A little over 20 years ago [about 1897] the trade student spent about 1,100 hours in class work and 7,000 in manual practice.

FOUR-YEAR REVISED CURRICULUM ADOPTED IN 1921.

In 1921 a revised curriculum of four years in length was adopted with a view to securing a better time allotment of trade practice and classroom study.

The old Hampton principle that "graduates of the trade school should have a general preparation for useful citizenship and community leadership" was reaffirmed.

It was also declared that—

> Such [civic] training in the trade school should be practically equivalent to the studies comprised in the minimum requirement of 12 units prescribed for admission to the various advanced courses, the trade practice in the trade school being considered equivalent to the 8 elective units which academic students must add who are going on to these other schools [of the institute].

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS TO TRADE SCHOOL IN 1922–23.

In 1922 the admission requirements to the Hampton Institute trade school covered the following points: Applicants must be 16 years of age or over. They must be of good moral character and show "earnestness of purpose, honesty, faithfulness, and persistent effort." They must also be in good health. Since the trade school is of high-school or secondary grade, applicants must possess good natural ability and have obtained an elementary education. Hampton allows full credit for work satisfactorily completed elsewhere as far as that work is equivalent to the Hampton courses." As for examinations, "every new student is required to pass a physical and medical examination and one of the standard intelligence tests. The fitness of a new student is also determined in one or all of the following ways: The recommendation of a former teacher, special examinations, and trial in class work."

TRADE-SCHOOL ENROLLMENT.

The trade-school enrollment which is given below should be studied in the light of the evolution of Hampton Institute as a whole

and of the trade school as a special unit or organ in this general process of development.

A careful study of the history of the trade school will show that as the negro and Indian schools improved the entrance requirements were made more exacting; that as the students were able to do more academic work they were required to do more and better academic work; that as the life at Hampton Institute became more complex the trade-school students were made to share the burdens of this complex organization; and that as Hampton was able to give its students better equipment and instruction the trade-school students always got their fair share of Hampton's added equipment and teaching personnel.

Trade-school enrollment.

Year.	Total enrollment, full trade classes.	First-year class.	Second-year class.	Third-year class.	Fourth-year class.	Unclassified class.	Special class.	Work-year class.	Short-course class.	Training of veterans.	Total.
1902-3.....	164	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1906-7.....	248	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1907-8.....	250	97	86	67	.....	.....	28	.....	.....	.....	.....
1911-12.....	208	86	67	55	.....	.....	35	6	.....	.....	278
1915-16.....	160	60	36	64	.....	18	7	17	.....	.....	249
1919-20.....	141	68	33	21	19	5	2	13	12	39	302
1921-22.....	193	54	71	45	23	3	2	10	10	21	239

OUTLOOK FOR TRAINED MEN.

Tradesmen have little trouble in obtaining work in the South where skilled colored workers are employed in large numbers by many white corporations; notably by the railroad shops, navy yards, and Newport News Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co. They find employment also in increasing numbers with the many negro development companies recently organized.

A number of men are foremen and instructors in the leading industrial schools of the South. Many others have shops of their own, often employing a number of assistants. Many tradesmen have built attractive houses for themselves or their parents. Several are successful contractors. One, a bricklayer, who is his own architect, has recently contracted for buildings aggregating in cost $211,000.

OCCUPATIONS ANALYSIS OF HAMPTON TRADESMEN.

Between 1895 and 1917 trade certificates were issued to 724 men (negroes, 687, and Indians, 37). Of this number 311 were graduates (negroes, 296, and Indians, 15) and 413 were ex-students (negroes, 391, and Indians, 22).

The details, which are here given, have been prepared by Miss M. J. Sherman, who is in charge of the record office.

Men holding trade certificates and Hampton diplomas, issued 1895–1921.

(Figures in italics refer to Indians.)

	Trade instructors.		Working at trade.		Other occupations.		Students.	
	Trade-school certificates and Hampton diplomas.	Trade-school certificates only.	Trade-school certificates and Hampton diplomas.	Trade-school certificates only.	Trade-school certificates and Hampton diplomas.	Trade-school certificates only.	Trade-school certificates and Hampton diplomas.	Trade-school certificates only.
Blacksmithing	4	2	6	22	2-17	1-17	2	0
Bricklaying and plastering	5	0	22	23	21	2-12	5	2
Cabinetmaking	4	1	0	1	3	1	0	0
Carpentry	34	6	3-34	2-38	2-26	3-16	3	0
Harnessmaking	0	1	1	0	1-0	0	0	0
Machine work	3	0	6-10	2-4	1-5	3-0	1	0
Painting	1	0	2	5	8	6	0	0
Printing	4	0	1-6	1-2	1-8	6	6	0
Shoemaking	2	0	3	4	4	6	0	0
Steam fitting and [illegible]								
Tailoring	1	0	10	1-11	8	3-9	0	0
Tinsmithing	5	1	1-14	1-29	9	13	2	0
Upholstering	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
Wheelwrighting	0	1	1	0	2	1-1	0	1
Woodworking machinery	3	1	2	6	10	19	0	1
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	66	13	8-112	7-146	7-122	15-115	19	4

Many tradesmen who have been classified under "other occupations" are engaged in valuable work for white and for colored people. This group includes two assistant commandants, an athletic director, and a bookkeeper at Hampton Institute; an assistant commandant, an athletic director, and a bookkeeper at Tuskegee Institute; the principal of the Negro Manual-Labor School in Hanover County, Va.; the director of agriculture at Biddle University, Raleigh, N. C.; the field secretary of the Negro Organization Society of Virginia; the secretary of the African Educational Commission, which was organized with the cooperation of the Phelps-Stokes fund of New York; county and district farm-demonstration agents; supervisors and principals of county-training schools, manual-training and grade schools; field workers for community service; African missionaries; farmers; postal clerks; professional men, such as ministers, physicians, lawyers, dentists, and teachers; and business men, such as real estate dealers, insurance agents, bankers, and undertakers.

CONTRIBUTION TO EDUCATION.

The trade school demonstrated that (1) negroes and Indians, when given an opportunity and good training, can do first-class trade work and can take responsible positions of leadership in community life; (2) it has developed methods of industrial training which can be adapted to the needs of all classes; (3) it has related industrial

work to the problems and needs of everyday life in a busy community; (4) it has produced goods which can and do meet commercial standards; and (5) has given students a compelling sense of service.

THE HOME-ECONOMICS SCHOOL.

CARRIE ALBERTA LYFORD,

Director, Home-Economics School, Hampton Institute.

The girls' work at Hampton dates back to the very beginning of the school. From the first days the young women received training in household duties. In the industrial rooms or women's labor department, which opened in 1868 and continued through several years, they were offered the opportunity to earn money to defray their expenses while at school.

The following extract, taken from the catalogue for 1875, expresses the spirit of the girls' work:

> The young women of the middle and senior class are instructed in the art of bread making and of plain cooking, and all the girls do housework, washing, and ironing throughout the course. Their labor is under careful supervision. The workrooms of all kinds are as pleasant as any in the institution; the dignity of labor is thus recognized; it is not and can not be regarded as in the least degrading to or unworthy of those who are in a course of study.

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF LIVING TAUGHT.

With all the facilities of the school at the disposal of students, the young women have had a particularly favorable opportunity for receiving training in the arts of housekeeping. Under the careful and able supervision of the conscientious teachers, who realized the lack of training in the fundamentals of decent living that has existed among the negroes in the past, the girls have been trained in the furnishing and care of their rooms, in their personal habits, in their choice of dress and in its care, and in the performance of all the duties involved in the maintenance of the home.

The dormitories and the sewing rooms have been treated as rich laboratories from which lessons of helpfulness have constantly been drawn, and the washboard has been regarded as much a real part of the educational equipment as the blackboard.

Composure in the preparation and serving of meals has been as much commended as composure on the commencement platform.

COURSES ADAPTED TO STUDENTS' NEEDS.

With the erection of the domestic-science building in 1898, household arts became a recognized course in the school curriculum, and since that time organized courses in cooking and sewing have been

regularly offered. These courses have always been carefully planned to meet the needs of the type of student which they are to serve and variations from prescribed courses in other secondary schools have been made without compunctions.

Throughout the four years the girls have devoted four hours a week to either cooking or sewing, each subject occupying four consecutive months. The cooking course has been planned to include nutrition and all of general cooking needed in the average home, with a special consideration of southern conditions, particularly of the homes from which the girls come.

The class work has made possible the giving of lessons in housewifery that are as fundamental for the improvement of home conditions as the work in cooking.

The lessons in sewing have included the making of personal garments and household articles by hand and by machine. Personal garments have not been confined to those for the individual girl, but are designed to include the clothing necessary for the entire family. The clothing for the baby, the man's shirt, and the adaptation of garments to those of various ages are a recognized part of the course. Knowledge of processes and adaptations to conditions have been the primary work of the classroom. Practice in the industrial sewing room has made possible the acquisition of skill.

COURSES ORGANIZED AROUND NEEDS OF THE HOME.

In addition to the usual prescribed courses in cooking and sewing, the girls have always been offered a course in household handicrafts, which has been planned to provide instruction in many phases of handwork necessary to the upkeep and improvement of the home. The girl has been taught to make simple conveniences for the home, to mend and refinish household furniture, to refinish floors and woodwork, to make baskets, and to weave rugs and other house furnishings. This course has been popularly known as "gumption class," as it has made possible the acquiring of information necessary to everyday living.

Art courses have formed a definite part of the course. The courses have been carefully adjusted to meet the meager background of the student and the instruction has helped the girls to an appreciation of good line and color in their homes and in their dress. Closely correlated as the work has been with the work of the household art classes, very tangible results have been apparent.

GIRLS DO PRACTICAL HOUSEKEEPING.

The practical housekeeping of the institution has continued to provide for the girls a large share of their training, for this has always

been regarded as a necessary corollary to the classroom work. With the beginning of every four months, each girl is assigned to some new duty in the institution, these duties including cooking in two kitchens, waiting on table in the dining rooms, care of bedrooms, care of halls and baths, work in the school laundry, and work in the industrial sewing room.

The busy life in the dormitories has always had the atmosphere of a well-conducted classroom in which the value of the work and the pleasure of its accomplishment have been recognized.

TRAINING OF HOME-ECONOMICS TEACHERS.

With the advance of negro schools in the South and the higher standards of certification, changes in the courses for the girls have been as inevitable as in the courses for the boys.

Women are needed to teach home economics in the normal schools, in the high schools, and in the elementary schools.

Home-demonstration agents and Jeanes industrial supervisors must be trained to carry on the community work in the homes and in the rural schools. Hampton has furnished many Jeanes industrial workers and home-economics teachers to the South in the past. Their training for the most part was limited to four years of secondary work with a term of practice teaching included. Conditions of elementary education have made progress slow, and students have been of mature years before completing this course.

SPECIAL TWO-YEAR HOME-ECONOMICS COURSE.

The first step in advance has been the provision of a special two-year home-economics normal course to add to the four years of secondary training that the women may continue to go out to fields of usefulness and be able to meet the demands made of them as creditably as did the older women in earlier days.

Women trained are expected to acquire habits of right living through constant practice during the years of residence at the school. Lessons taught in the classroom have been especially valuable because reenforced by the daily practices in the dormitories. Standards have been established that have been carried back to the communities from which the students have come. Thrift and service have stood as the qualities that have preeminently characterized the women who have learned, not only how to do their work, but also why they follow certain methods—women who have come to feel that the service which they can render to their own people may have both a racial and a national value.

COURSE PROVIDED FOR MATRONS.

For several years a course in institutional management for the matrons of boarding schools has been maintained at the institute during the summer-school session.

Supervisors and principals have demanded such a course, for they have recognized that well-conducted dormitory life is one of the fundamental educational forces at the boarding school. Trained women to take charge of this work have been lacking and the normal schools have not been able to give the special training demanded in these positions. A mature woman who has had thorough training in home economics and who understands the educational possibilities of life in the dormitory is the one most successful in meeting the many demands of the position.

PROBLEM OF IMPROVING DORMITORY LIFE.

The course has been based on a consideration of the ideals of the schools and the part that the dormitory life can play in helping to reach these ideals. The purpose back of the work has thus been made clear and the work has been put on the high plane where it rightfully belongs.

All of the activities and industries necessary to the maintenance of dormitory life are treated as practical phases of home-economics education, and the performance of all the daily duties is recognized as a vital part of the school life. High standards of living can thereby be enforced and thoughtful workers trained.

The economic questions that constantly rise in the boarding school are carefully studied, especial consideration being given to the problem of food and food service. A well-chosen, economical diet is worked out, the proper method of handling the food from the time of its purchase in the wholesale market to its service on the table being discussed.

MATRON'S CLASS HAS MEMBERS FROM ALL THE SOUTHERN STATES.

During the five years that the course for matrons has been offered, the class has been made up of women from all the Southern States. Many of the matrons in the class have been women of many years' experience who have been eager to improve their methods of work, or to develop better methods of administration.

Others have come to the class with only a meager background of experience but with good home-economics training, while some have come without training or experience. For this last class the course can do very little more than help them to gain a vision of the possibilities in the matron's field of work and inspire them

with a desire to seek the special training which they so much need. For the woman who has had experience or training, or both, the course has afforded the stimulus of the possibility of growth so necessary to progress, and she has gone back to her work with a widened horizon and a new zeal for her task.

HOME-ECONOMICS SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY IN 1922–23.

First year.—Principles of education and educational psychology, 5; advanced food study and principles of cooking, 6; dressmaking, 6; advanced physiology (half year), 4; bacteriology (half year), 4; textiles (half year), 1; historic costume (half year), 1; art, 2; household handicrafts, 5; one elective. (This elective may be selected in consultation with the director from the other courses which the institute offers.

Second year.—One-half year: Training in teaching home economics. One-half year: Rural sociology, 5; methods of teaching—foods and cooking, sewing and textiles, care of the home, extension courses, 5; history of education, 5; tailoring and millinery, 6; art (house furnishing), 2; one elective.

Electives.—Educational tests and standards, 5; grade methods, 5; principles of vocational guidance, 5; school hygiene, 5.

ALL WORK FOR GIRLS CAREFULLY PLANNED.

The organization of the girls' work is carefully planned to utilize every phase of their daily living, while in school, as a preparation for the work which they are to carry on in after life. Because they are being prepared to become home makers, teachers, and leaders in their home communities, every girl is given opportunity to perfect herself in household arts and in the science of right living in order that she may properly conduct a home and inspire others to high standards of home making.

Classes in the home-economics subjects, customarily presented, are held throughout the academic course, but these form only a small part of the training received, for during the "work year," which every girl is urged to take and in which a large number are enrolled, and on the weekly "work day," expected of all students during their day school course, every girl is assigned to some form of housework which she must pursue until she can perform it with ease.

Artificial situations are not created for the purpose of giving the girls insight into processes with which they should become familiar, for all the work which is necessary in the daily conduct of the school becomes the field of study of the student, and the control of situations under the constantly varying conditions of daily life must be mastered. This means careful oversight and requires a large number of teachers for the purpose of supervising the training of the girls in the proper methods of work.

The training and development of the students supersede the mere accomplishment of the task, necessary as that is to the maintenance

of the standard of the institution. The daily life of the school bears witness to the success with which the task is accomplished, while the useful lives of Hampton's many women graduates are an ever-growing testimony to the permanent value of such training.

DORMITORIES USED AS TRAINING CENTERS.

In addition to the careful training of the girls in processes that must be performed with skill, and the maintenance of dormitories that are in every way models of well-kept and systematically regulated dwellings, the performance of the daily or weekly task gives to the girls opportunity for the earning of funds that contribute towards the expenses of their education. Each task is paid for by the hour, the rate of pay being regulated by the proficiency with which the task is performed.

The new student, for example, who is working for the first time in the laundry can not earn as much per hour as her neighbor at the next iron who may have had several weeks of experience. The girl who has been assigned to the kitchen of Holly Tree Inn will require many days of training before her services will merit the highest hourly pay. Thus, to the interest and pride which a girl feels in the work which she is doing, is added the ambition to make her work count for as much as possible in the way of income. The ambitious girl works hard throughout her years of training.

It is only as one observes carefully the details of life at Hampton that realization comes of the varied types of work in which a girl can have training and in which her record must bear a grade. There is the institutional work necessary in the conduct of the students' boarding department, with its 800 or more students; the smaller kitchen and dining room with their more complicated service for 100 teachers; and the dining room at the Holly Tree Inn, with a variation in the number of guests from 40 to 100. At the same time there is work to be done in the diet kitchen, whether one or a dozen are ill. There are the teachers' bedrooms to be cared for. There are cleaning and dusting always, the preparation of rooms for newcomers, and the mending, repairing, and refurnishing that constant wear and tear involve. Not all the sewing is on old garments or on old articles of house furnishing, for, as in any well-regulated home, there is a constant supply of new furnishings to be cut and hemmed, new aprons to be made, and new hangings to be planned.

THE WORK-YEAR PLAN.

When a new student begins her work year, she is at once assigned to one or two dozen tasks at which she is employed throughout the day. During this year she attends night school for two hours in

order to perfect herself in those academic subjects which are required for entrance into the day school. If she is working in the laundry, she will probably continue at her first task there only long enough to master it, and then she will be assigned to other operations. She will remain in the laundry for several months in order to acquire skill in that work, and then her assignment will be changed to the teachers' kitchen or to some part of the dormitories.

When her work year is completed she will not yet have secured practice in all phases of house work, but after she enters the day school, she will continue to give one day a week to practical work and such additional time as she desires to give, provided she is considered physically able. This work will be chosen from among those tasks which can be more easily mastered during a short interval and in which consecutive daily practice is not so essential. Thus the girl on her work day may be assigned to the industrial sewing room, to the care of the cooking schools, or to the sweeping and dusting of the corridors.

The girl in the day school, however, may be assigned to the work of waiting on table three times daily, or to the care of a teacher's room. Thus, every girl in school has the opportunity to work in these various departments whether or not she has passed through the work year.

In addition to the work for which they are paid, the girls have their own rooms to care for. These must be kept in orderly condition, at all times ready for inspection. The cleaning is regularly and systematically done, and frequent inspections insure its thoroughness.

The capacity of a girl to perform her task and to develop in her work is carefully considered when assignments are made. The girl who enters school quite untrained in not ready to take up the taxing work of table service until she has acquired control and the ability to consider the comfort of others. A new girl will have opportunity to serve as an understudy to an old girl who has already mastered her task; and at the beginning of the year two girls will be seen working quietly together, one as student, the other as teacher, until the student is able to carry her work alone. Mistakes are made and perfection in execution is not expected in these early days of training, but a willing spirit and steady growth are made the basis for judging the new girl during her early days of trial and error.

GIRLS OBTAIN ALL-ROUND TRAINING.

The work year was established as a feature of the course at a time when the people of the country were sadly in need of learning the dignity of labor. Few colored people had funds with which to

secure an education. The work year has helped Hampton girls to learn the joy that lies in manual labor well performed and at the same time has enabled them to continue the education for which their opportunities have been all too few. It has proved the basis of their education in home economics, and its value is felt to be as great, from an educational standpoint, as when it was established over 50 years ago.

The girl is neither exploited in the interests of the institution nor is her training narrowly restricted to preparation for a trade or for service. Her academic work is enriched by a background of experience that is seldom available to a student while in school. The well-rounded cycle of duties required of her and the cooperative spirit in which they must be performed help to prepare her for future duties in home and community.

A system of vocational education so carefully supervised, in which there is such a frequent change of work from one task to the other, can only be maintained at considerable expense. Justification of such expense can be found only in the work that the Hampton student is able to carry on after she has completed her training. The young woman goes back to her own community to carry to hundreds of other lives those ideals of industry and service which she has learned to treasure. Higher standards of living are developed throughout a community to which such a worker comes, and improved home conditions make possible a stronger, wiser, and happier race of people. The contribution of such work to national service is incalculable.

THE BUSINESS SCHOOL.

ETHEL C. BUCKMAN,

Acting Director, Business School, Hampton Institute.

Business appeals to many negroes who have saved a few hundred or a thousand dollars. Many negroes have started within the past few years various kinds of business enterprises. Many of these men and women have neither training nor experience. They have great ambition and some money. They realize their limitations and are constantly turning to schools like Hampton and Tuskegee and are asking for trained helpers. Many kinds of positions are open to colored men and women who are prepared to take advantage of them. In order to answer these calls Hampton has recently extended the business course two years beyond high-school grade.

The specific problem of the present business school is to organize a course of study which, conscientiously carried out, will provide

thorough technical training for those who occupy positions of responsibility, along with a thorough appreciation of social and civic duties and the ability to bring sound reason and judgment to the interpretation of economic problems.

As Hampton Institute is in itself a complex business organization students are not only given an opportunity to observe the conduct of this organization but they are also allowed to take an active part in its offices, thus securing at first hand an experience which will add materially to their power.

During one quarter of the second year of the course the students are sent out to gain, under supervision, actual business experiences in near-by towns and cities or to give them an opportunity to prepare for teaching positions.

For admission to the business school, the applicant must have completed not less than 15 units of secondary-school work. The completion of the academy course at Hampton, or of four years in a good high school elsewhere, should enable one to meet the requirements for admission to this school. Applicants from other schools who wish to be admitted without examination must furnish complete records of their secondary-school work.

The academy offers, by means of elective subjects, opportunity to prepare directly for the business school. Most of the business subjects usually offered in high-school commercial courses are elective in the second, third, and fourth years.

It is necessary that students who take up accounting should be well grounded in elementary bookkeeping and that those who desire to take advanced secretarial work should be fairly proficient in shorthand and typewriting.

Graduates or former students of Hampton or of other schools who wish to continue their studies in order to fit themselves for more responsible positions are admitted to regular classes, provided they are qualified to profit by the work. Special students are given full opportunity to take up such work as will materially assist them in their business. Young men who, although not qualified to enter as regular students, have had practical experience in business and find themselves in need of more training along specific lines, are allowed to enroll in the business school for courses which will help them in their work. Programs are arranged to fit their needs.

The work of the classes in business subjects in the academy is under the supervision of the director of the business school, and the classes are taught by members of the business-school faculty.

BUSINESS SCHOOL COURSES IN 1922–23.

GENERAL BUSINESS COURSE.

(The figures refer to 50 minute periods per week.)

First Year.—Accounting I, 5; business English, 3; business law, 4; economics, 4; office training—class training (one quarter) 6; school offices (one quarter) five afternoons weekly.

Electives.—Public speaking, music, typewriting.[10]

Second year.—Accounting II (two quarters), 5; business organization and administration (one quarter), 4; money and banking (one quarter), 4; psychology (two quarters), 5; "business experience"[11] (one quarter), entire time.

Electives.—Retail selling (one quarter), office management (one quarter), review of commercial branches and methods of teaching (two quarters), public speaking.

SECRETARIAL COURSE (TEACHER TRAINING).

First year.—Business English, 3; business law, 4; dictation practice[10] 5; secretarial accounting, 5; office training, class training (one quarter), 6; school offices (one quarter) five afternoons weekly.

Electives.—Economics, public speaking, music.

Second year.—Business organization and administration (one quarter), 4; psychology (two quarters), 5; review of commercial branches and methods of teaching, 8.

Electives.—Practice teaching or business experience,[11] secretarial duties, office management, retail selling, money and banking.

DESCRIPTION OF COURSES.

Business English.—English in business is essential. The work of this course is divided between oral and written work with the aim of making the use of effective English a matter of habit. A study of commercial correspondence and the writing of reports occupies much of the time. Assigned readings are given to acquaint students with modern business literature.

Business law.—Contracts, sales of personal property, bailments, agency, negotiable instruments, business associations, real estate, insurance—these subjects are given some serious study. Huffcut's "Elements of Business Law," revised edition, is used as a textbook, while Clark's "Contracts," Dobie's "Bailments," Mechem's "Agency," Tiffany's "Sales," and Vance's "Insurance" are used as reference books.

Accounting.—Two years' study of bookkeeping, as usually offered in secondary schools, is a prerequisite to accounting.

Accounting is the science of so analyzing and recording all incidents and transactions of a business, estate, or organization that results

[10] Opportunity is given students to use typewriters for any work that may require the use of the machines.

[11] During the second or third quarter of second year students are sent to near-by towns and cities for business experience under supervision. Students will when possible return to Hampton Institute for weekly conferences. During the time students are employed in this work, assigned reading will be given them along the line of their employment.

may be shown and tendencies indicated. The course in accounting is designed to give thorough technical training and to prepare students to undertake the management of the accounting department of a business house or other institution. During the second year special studies are made of systems of accounting which are adapted to various kinds of business and institutions. Volume one of Kester's work on accounting is the textbook.

Economics.—The first and second quarters of the first year are given principally to a study of economic theory; the third quarter is devoted to a study of economic institutions and problems, particularly those which most directly concern the economic development of the South.

Business organization and administration.—The aim of this course is to give a comprehensive knowledge of the economic and legal aspects of business associations.

Money and banking.—Sound banking is most essential for all business and a knowledge of what constitutes sound banking practice and good money is vital to the business men of the future. This course aims to present the functions of the modern bank and its service to the community. A short history of banking, a study of the Federal reserve system, and the problems of American banking are included in the course.

Office training.—The work in office training is divided between theoretical work in the classroom and observation in the school offices. During the first quarter of the first year six periods weekly are devoted to a theoretical study of office routine. This work forms an admirable preparation for the work of the second quarter, when the students spend five afternoons weekly in the school offices. It is usually necessary to send half of a class to the offices in the second quarter and the others in the third quarter, alternating this training with other lines of work.

Secretarial duties.—For the young woman who is preparing herself to become a private secretary, this course gives familiarity with the various duties which such a position entails. The work consists of a series of lectures and assigned reading, and reports based upon observation and interviews, together with some carefully planned assignments.

Office management.—This course is offered to those who desire more thorough and technical training in the direction and management of the large business or institutional office.

Retail selling.—Students who intend to go into the business of merchandising find this course especially planned to familiarize them with the details of retail salesmanship and the management of small retail establishments.

Review of commercial branches and methods of teaching.—This work is outlined for those students who plan to teach commercial subjects. It consists not only of a review of the commercial subjects which are usually taught in high schools but also of methods of teaching these branches. It supplements the course in principles and methods of teaching. The list of topics includes commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, elementary and intermediate bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, and commercial correspondence.

EDUCATION OF INDIANS.

CAROLINE W. ANDRUS,
Indian Correspondent, Hampton Institute.

The original plans for Hampton Institute did not include students other than negroes. In 1878 a band of Kiowas and Comanches, who for several years had been prisoners of war at St. Augustine, Fla., were to be released. They had been brought to the East as the wildest of savages.

> They were taken in chains. They were filled with hate and feelings of deepest revenge for the wrongs which they thought they had undergone. One chief jumped from the cars and was shot by the guard. Another committed suicide on the way. Others would have done so if they had not been closely watched. They wore only their Indian blankets and great brass rings in their ears. Not one understood English.

Under the wise and efficient leadership of Capt. R. H. Pratt, however, they had learned enough of the white man's road for a few of the number to wish to follow it a little further rather than return to their western homes. There was no school suited to their age and attainments, but, because of the appeal of various persons interested in humanitarian work, 17 were admitted to Hampton, their expenses being met by private individuals, as there was no Government fund available for the purpose.

Of the work at this critical period General Armstrong wrote:

> A few weeks after the arrival of the ex-prisoners I called on the Hon. Carl Schurz, then Secretary of the Interior, to suggest that the so far very encouraging experience in Indian civilization be tried more fully by bringing some younger material, girls especially. I urged that there is no civilization without educated women and begged the Secretary to let us try. He decided to do so and gave the necessary orders. * * *
>
> The first party of Indians, the ex-prisoners of war, arrived on April 8, 1878. In November of the same year 40 boys and 9 girls, chiefly Sioux, came. The experiment was watched by many skeptical eyes, but its success was so pronounced that "Congress, on the strength of the results of Hampton and Captain Pratt's proved capacity, appropriated funds to start the great work at Carlisle."

INDIAN EXPERIMENT PROVES SUCCESSFUL.

The effect of Hampton's Indian work, small as it has been in numbers, has been important in its influence. From the beginning records of each individual have been kept. It has been easy to disprove the oft-repeated statement that all educated Indians go back to the blanket.

So marked was the success of the experiment at Hampton Institute that a public sentiment in favor of Indian education was created. From this small beginning has grown the present system of Government Indian education. It is now estimated that over 61,000 Indian children are in Government and other schools.

Writes General Pratt:

> Without the open door at Hampton, none of the advanced conditions in Indian school affairs of to-day would have become established. It would be difficult to locate the critical period in the development of the movement, but certainly Hampton and Armstrong (*Strong Arm*) can claim one of the foremost emergency positions.

From the arrival of the first party of Sioux in 1878 until 1912 Hampton received an annual appropriation of $167 per pupil from the Government for its Indian work. This covered traveling expenses to and from the West, board, clothing, and certain incidentals. The Indian scholarships were paid by generous friends of the school. The Indian enrollment at Hampton Institute reached its peak in 1887, when there were 160 present.

In 1912 this Government appropriation was withdrawn. Few there were who believed that any of the Indians who were then in attendance would have sufficient courage to remain to work their way through school, when they could so easily go to Government schools where every expense would be met. The result surprised even those who knew the Indians best, for nearly half the number then enrolled [81] chose to remain, while 8 new students were admitted during the following fall.

Those who remained at Hampton with no Government assistance have gained an appreciation of the value of time, work, and money, have learned to look and plan ahead, and have strengthened in purpose in a way that would hardly be possible for students who were not working out their own salvation.

Distribution of Indian men trained at Hampton.[12]

Arizona	27	Iowa	4	Minnesota	12
California	5	Kansas	7	Montana	4
Colorado	2	Maine	2	Nebraska	42
District of Columbia	1	Massachusetts	7	New Mexico	6
Illinois	1	Michigan	2	New York	68

[12] As of Dec. 31, 1921.

A. CLASS IN DRESSMAKING.

B. CLASS IN WEAVING.

A. PRACTICAL GARDENING FOR GIRLS.

The girls learn how to grow common vegetables and how to can them for winter use.

B. CLASS IN COOKING.

Distribution of Indian men trained at Hampton—Continued.

North Carolina	24	Virginia	1	Hawaiian Islands	1
North Dakota	31	Washington	3	Panama	1
Oklahoma	53	Wisconsin	90	Unknown	23
Pennsylvania	5	Wyoming	1		
South Dakota	96	Canada	2		

By far the largest number of the women students marry and are doing what lies in their power to advance their race. Scattered over the reservations are many neatly-kept, comfortable, Christian homes, where children are reaping the benefit of Hampton's teachings and getting a better start than their parents had. Others of the women students are in the Government school service, as matrons or teachers, or in industrial positions, while a few in the outside world are earning their living as trained nurses or as stenographers, or by following the varied occupations of their Anglo-Saxon sisters.

Occupations of Indian women trained at Hampton.[12]

Housekeepers	226	Nurses	10
Indian agency and school service	16	Mission work	3
Domestic service	13	Clerks and stenographers	8
Unmarried and at home	10	Miscellaneous	12
Students	3	Insane	2
Teachers	6	Location unknown	18

Among the men there is an even greater range of occupations. Farming and stock raising claim the largest number, many are following the trades learned at Hampton, some are in the Government service, and some are working independently, while still others are in the professions.

Careful records, verified by frequent trips among former students, show that 87 per cent have, all things considered, made satisfactory records.

Occupations of Indian men trained at Hampton.[12]

Farmers and stock raisers	257	United States employees	16
Railroad employees, lumbermen, farm hands, and laborers	49	Religious workers	17
Independent tradesmen	50	Students	10
Indian agency and school service	38	Miscellaneous	25
Business men, clerks, and bookkeepers	25	Professional, including 6 teachers	9
		Insane	2
		Unknown	23

The conditions to which most Indian students return are hard, far harder than the average easterner can realize. Many of the reservations are distant from the railroads, so that supplies are hard to get as well as expensive, while in places water is a real luxury.

[12] As of Dec. 31, 1921.

The standards of the community must also be taken into consideration, and in all too many localities the white people living near the Indians are not of a type to prove either helpful or elevating. With all these difficulties and many, many more, we are apt to expect far more of the Indian than we would of a white student who had enjoyed equal advantages.

A white boy who has been in school until he is perhaps 20, and in that time has had to master, in addition to the usual studies, a new language, and accept an entirely strange system of living, is not expected to raise the standards of his home community to any very great extent; the Indian is.

The Indian must not only have acquired a trade and be able to do skillful work, but he must also speak English well enough to act as interpreter, understand the Bible, and teach in Sunday school, as well as be prepared to advise in the councils of his people regarding various phases of their legal standing and land questions. And when he is unable to fulfill all these requirements we hear that Indian education is a failure!

INDIAN WOMEN FACE DIFFICULT PROBLEMS.

That the men, as a whole, keep up to the standards of the school better than the women is undoubtedly true. It is the natural and inevitable result of a life that brings the man into competition with many men and keeps the woman in the home, where she is very probably entirely under the dominion of an autocratic person of the old type, who not only does not wish, but will not allow, any changes in the household régime.

There are some Indian women, however, who, with exceptional ability, have made remarkably fine records. These women stand out in their communities as leaders and have their part in every good work. As is bound to be the case, however, the great majority of Indian women lead average lives, and in the end, perhaps, they are the ones who count for most.

TRAINED INDIANS IN DEMAND.

Since Hampton's first Indian students returned to their homes, conditions have changed in a vast number of ways. There are now many schools. English is becoming an intertribal language, reservations are being broken up, and the sales of land bring white neighbors into every community.

In spite of all that has been done, however, by the Government and by missionaries, there was never a time when the need was greater, or when Indian men and women of broad sympathy and high moral training could help their people more.

Hampton's part in this work is necessarily small, but the 29 girls and boys representing 12 tribes who are now in school, the largest number at any time for several years, are preparing themselves to go back to their people, to do what they can in the work of uplift for the race that so greatly needs their help.

Many people have the idea that because Hampton Institute no longer has a Government appropriation for Indian students it is closed to them. Such is not the case, for the school feels that it can do more for them in some ways than ever before.

Hampton Institute does not wish to compete in any way with other schools; it merely aims to supplement their work. It desires only boys and girls who feel the need of further training in trades or agriculture, in domestic science, domestic arts, or normal work, and wish to be fitted to teach and lead their own people.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

A. PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR BOYS.

CHARLES H. WILLIAMS,

Head of Department, Physical Education for Boys, Hampton Institute.

The athletic and recreational life of the young men at Hampton Institute consists of participation in intercollegiate and interclass competition in various forms of athletic games.

The intercollegiate competition is conducted in football, basketball, baseball, and field and track athletics.

Interclass competition includes the four above-named forms of competition, and, in addition, tennis and rowing.

Intercollegiate competition is conducted among the seven schools in the Colored Intercollegiate Association of the Middle Atlantic States, of which Hampton Institute is a member.

Occasionally intersectional contests are played with leading colleges, as well as with teams representing the leading athletic clubs in the East.

THE ATHLETIC PROGRAM REACHES MAJORITY OF STUDENTS.

Interclass competition has been developed for all sports. Every class has a team and participates in the several class leagues. Keen rivalry and most unusual enthusiasm are exhibited during these contests. This form of competition not only offers young men an opportunity to train for variety teams, but also affords a healthy and wholesome form of recreation for the majority of the student body.

Physical training was started for young men in the term of 1910–11. At the beginning it consisted in the different companies of the school battalion meeting at the institute gymnasium for 20 minutes after night school and study-hour once a week, where they were given setting-up exercises.

At present all day-school boys have physical training for two regular academic periods each week. This work includes indoor and outdoor games, freehand and heavy apparatus, a study of graded gymnastics by seniors, also lectures on coaching methods and on the development and value of play in physical education.

The indoor work in physical training terminates in the spring with an annual demonstration of the class work which has been done during the school year.

New students are given physical and medical examinations on entering school. All students are given medical inspection twice a year by the school physician. Through this medium student health is closely watched and cases which need attention are discovered and immediately treated.

A regular three-year course in physical education is given during the summer school held at Hampton; also a playground course which has been taken by several hundred teachers from every section of the South. This work will doubtless influence the recreational life of hundreds of negro schools throughout the South to-day.

Specimen programs of annual gymnasium exhibitions, given with appropriate music, follow:

PROGRAM.

Wand exercises	Boys.
Gymnastic class	Girls.
Apparatus exercises	Boys.
Tumbling	Boys.
Willow wand exercises	Girls.
Csarfas—Characteristic Hungarian folk dance.	
Dumb-bell exercises	Boys.
Playground demonstration	Senior girls.
Lesson	Senior girls.
Singing games—London Bridge; Sing a Song of Sixpence.	
School dance—How Do You Do?	
Games—Three deep; dodge ball.	
Volley ball	Boys.
Chariot race.	
Human burden race.	
Dutch dance	Boys.
Fireflies	Girls.
Solo—An æsthetic dance	Miss Carriebel B. Cole.
Tarantella—Characteristic Italian folk dance.	

PROGRAM.

Apparatus work	Boys.
Games—Simple competitive type	Preparatory girls.
Zigzag relay.	
Bat ball.	
Dutch dance	Girls.
Dancing, recreative	First-year girls.
Old Dan Tucker (American country dance).	
Cschbogar (Hungarian folk dance).	
Eloise gavotte.	
Dumb-bells	Boys.
Gymnastic lesson [1]	Second-year girls.
Wand drill (written by Miss Carriebel B. Cole)	Boys.
Irish jig	Third-year girls.
Poeme Erotique—Choreographic interpretation (Melville Charlton)	Dora Cole Norman.
Schoolroom work—selected types	Normal-class girls.
First-grade activities:	
Story play—"Halloween."	
Nursery rhyme dances.	
Pussy Cat, Pussy Cat.	
Three Blind Mice.	
Hey Diddle Diddle.	
Classroom exercises:	
Posture work.	
Setting-up drill.	
"Cotton Needs Pickin'."	
Characteristic negro eccentric dancing	William Ball and Otis N. Greer.
Scenes from an Imaginary Ballet (Coleridge-Taylor).	
Varsovienne, characteristic Polish dance	Dora Cole Norman.

B. PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

OLIVE B. ROWELL,

Head of Department, Physical Education for Girls, Hampton Institute.

Physical education for girls at Hampton Institute has a threefold purpose. Two of its aspects deal with the welfare of the individual student, while the third considers the prospective teacher or community leader. The methods by which this purpose is carried out may be treated separately.

The school assumes the responsibility of safeguarding and, so far as possible, improving the health of the students in its charge. Upon entrance each girl is given a careful medical examination to determine (1) whether she may be admitted to the school, and (2) what defective conditions of eyes, teeth, or tonsils must be corrected, if she is to remain.

[1] Aims: Education—quick response; postural—good form; hygienic—vigorous activity; social cooperative effort.

The school physician also determines whether a girl needs a particular diet or special restrictions as to work or exercise.

CAREFUL PHYSICAL AND ORTHOPEDIC RECORDS KEPT.

At the beginning and end of every year, each girl is examined by the director of physical education, who keeps a record covering height, weight, strength tests, back and foot conditions, and facts relating to her general health.

Special attention is paid to underweight and weak feet, since these conditions bear directly on the student's capacity for work of any kind.

The physical examination also gives the director an opportunity to study the needs of the individual girl and to interest her in reaching a higher level of health by controlling her own habits of exercise, eating, sleep, study, and recreation.

A course in physical education and hygiene is required of all students in the academy, two periods weekly throughout the course.

During the fall and spring the work is given out of doors, and includes a variety of games, progressing from the simple forms to the organized sports.

Through the girls' athletic association interclass tournaments in volley ball, field hockey, basket-ball and baseball are carried on, the teams meeting after school for regular practice, which is supervised by the physical education teachers.

A voluntary class in games is held on Saturday, particularly for students who are taking a work year and other new students who are not in the regular physical-education classes.

RECREATIVE ACTIVITIES ARE STIMULATED.

A point system of credits for individual participation in recreative activities leads to a badge, which is awarded to those who make a required number of points.

Two badges are used, that for "first honor," representing a minimum number of points, while the "second honor" is given for earning an additional number. This system of award has proven a strong incentive. Points are given as follows:

Basket-ball, Baseball — Each player in a tournament game—50 points.
Volley ball, Hockey (field) — Each player on championship team—10 additional points.
Folk dances, for every six—10 points.
Group dances, for every ten—10 points; and
Hikes, for a 4-mile hike—10 points.

In order to receive points for folk dances and games, a test must be passed. No one is awarded honors who does not qualify in good sportsmanship and good posture.

Decisions as to qualifications are made by the teachers of physical education together with a committee of students. Additions to the list of activities for which points are given may be made as desired.

PREMIUM PLACED ON GOOD SPORTSMANSHIP.

The purpose of the outdoor work is to develop a love of wholesome recreation, as well as to cultivate that spirit of good sportsmanship which includes ideals of honor and fair play, loyalty and cooperation, generosity to opponents, self-control under stress, and perseverance against obstacles.

The indoor work includes marching, free-standing exercises, posture tests, apparatus work, games, folk and aesthetic dancing, and gymnastic games.

The indoor work is designed to give training in habits of correct posture, skill and grace in movement, and to provide exercise that is healthful, pleasurable, and mentally stimulating.

A demonstration of class work closes the indoor season, and later in the spring a May festival is given.

As opportunities occur during the year, informal discussions are used to teach the necessity for a shower bath and change of clothing after vigorous exercise, and to emphasize the fact that muscular activity is probably the most important single factor in maintaining a high level of personal efficiency.

STATE REQUIREMENTS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION ARE MET.

Since the State of Virginia, under the West bill, has made physical education compulsory in all public schools, any institution that desires to have its graduates certified as teachers must provide training which meets the State requirements.

To meet this need all students in the normal school must have approved courses in (1) school hygiene (36 lectures), and (2) methods of physical education for school children, three hours weekly for one quarter.

Practice work for both these courses is given during the teacher-training period at the Whittier training school, where the student teachers make tests in hearing and vision, and organize games at recess.

Practical work in physical education activities is also a State requirement, which is fully met in the regular classes of the academy.

MAY-DAY PROGRAM.

A program of the May-Day dancing, with music furnished by the institute military brass band, follows:

Entrance march	All participants.
Folk dance—The Crested Hen	Whittier children.
Willow wand drill	Third-year girls.
Folk dance—Bleking	Girls.
Folk dance—Norwegian Mountain March	Girls.
Folk dance—Highland Schottische	Second-year girls.
Partner dance—Eloise Gavotte	Girls.
Aesthetic dance—Apple Blossoms	Group of three girls.
May-pole dance	First-year girls.

DISCIPLINE.

MAJ. ALLEN W. WASHINGTON,

Commandant, Hampton Institute.

The work of the commandant's office touches practically all departments of the school and all phases of student life. The duties are primarily those which relate to discipline. Taken in the broad sense of the word, discipline means general helpfulness in every way toward the student.

Discipline does not mean the standing of one in authority over a person, compelling that person to obey rules. It means to urge the student to see things in proper perspective and to try to prevent students from getting into trouble, rather than punishing them after the trouble has occurred. Of course, punishment must sometimes be administered and as judiciously as possible.

Discipline is necessary for the best training of students, since many of them come from homes where they have been unrestrained and where they have not had the fullest appreciation for authority. The students' homes are making great improvement, however, in this direction.

Of course, the World War brought on many changes, and methods of discipline have changed with other things. This necessitates our dealing quite differently with students.

It is very interesting to register a new student. This work includes finding out something about his home, his parents, the size of his family, and the general conditions about his home life. It is also very interesting to assign him to a room, select a suitable roommate, seat him in the dining room with agreeable surroundings, and place him in the right classes.

Then follows the selection of the student's work, the discovery of what kind of work he has done, and what he wants to do at Hampton, the discussion of his plans for the future, and the assignment of him to such work and study as will fit into the scheme of his desire.

All of this interviewing is very strange to a new boy. For the most part, however, he enters into the ordeal with enthusiasm. Before long he is absorbed in the life of the institution. He starts with a new inspiration the work of securing a broader education.

It is necessary to follow up the new student to see that he gets to meals on time, that his room is thoroughly cleaned and aired, that his bed is properly made, that his clothes are neatly arranged in his wardrobe, his shoes are carefully placed under the side of his bed, and that he starts off cheerfully for his work of the day.

Each student is assigned to a company in the school battalion. Every physically fit boy is a member of the Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps. This organization requires three hours for drill each week. This military training is a splendid thing for the boys. Every boy wants to be a soldier and the military life appeals to him. The school battalion is officered by students. The battalion is an excellent field for the development of leadership and cooperation.

Each student is assigned a seat in the school church and in Ogden Hall, which is the common meeting place for the daily devotional service at 8.30 in the evening. The religious life at Hampton is the center around which all other phases of institutional life revolve.

STUDENT SELF-GOVERNMENT ENCOURAGED.

Is is the plan, so far as possible, to have student government. In each dormitory there is a janitor, who is responsible for the care and proper conduct of the boys in his building. He is given authority which must be recognized and obeyed cheerfully. Any infringement on the janitor's authority or any lack of respect for his authority is reported to the commandant, the matter is then investigated, and an adjustment is made.

It is believed that it is a wise policy to separate, as much as possible, the small boys from the larger ones, because the small boys need a different kind of training. It is necessary for the young boys to retire a little earlier at night, and, if possible, it is a good thing for them to sleep a little later in the morning. This is necessary for their growth. This policy is also better for disciplinary reasons.

The smaller boys need some one near them to give them more general supervision than is required by advanced students. In order to see that right influences are thrown around the younger students,

they are given a kind of parental care that is different from that which is given older students. This arrangement has proved very satisfactory at this institution.

One of the most influential of the older boys, who is somewhat of a big brother to these smaller boys, is in charge of them. He can laugh with them, play with them, work with them, and direct them, without seeming unkind in any way. We want this same spirit exhibited more and more with these younger boys and with older ones as well.

Much time is spent in advising students who come to consult members of the commandant's office about their homes, their health, their school work, their financial situations, their religious life, their future plans, and everything that affects the life at Hampton.

A PREMIUM PLACED ON GOOD HEALTH.

The health of the students is given careful attention. Students are given a thorough physical examination when they enter. If students are not in good physical condition, the first thing is to make them physically fit for the work which they have to do. Some students come with adenoids, some have bad tonsils, others have diseased teeth, and some have defective eyesight. All these handicaps must be remedied before the student can do his work satisfactorily. The students' rooms must be well ventilated. Boys must take baths at the proper time.

The Hampton officers serve as morale officers and police the students when they are outside, as well as inside, of the school grounds where there are opportunities for them to get into places of less elevating character. The uniform often saves boys from temptations, consequently there have been very few cases of immorality.

The boys are required to be properly clothed. A long-established rule has been that the boys who had sufficient credit balance in the treasurer's office could make application for the clothing which they have needed. The clothing purchased was charged to their accounts. In 1921 Hampton gave up this system, as it was very difficult to manage satisfactorily. Every boy is now expected to purchase his clothing and pay for it in cash. One suit of clothes is furnished by the War Department to the members of the Junior Reserve Officers' Training Corps. Any extra clothing which the student wishes, he must purchase with his own money. Each student is expected to buy a serge suit which is better than the one provided by the United States Government. This suit is worn on Sundays and for special occasions, thus leaving the suit given by the Government to be used every day. This adds greatly to the appearance of the boys.

INTEREST IN STUDENTS EXTENDS BEYOND HAMPTON.

The boys are followed up not only during the term time, but also during the summer vacations. It is important that the institute should know at all times what its students are doing. From year to year Hampton has been able to secure in the North places where boys can earn money for their next year's expenses. Each fall letters are sent out asking about the boys, how well they have done with their work and about their general demeanor, and for the most part very satisfactory reports have been received. There are very few cases where the boys have not given splendid service during the summer. Employers often ask to have the same boys return to them the following year. The school officers feel that it is very necessary to follow the students right along through the regular school courses and then follow them after they have gone out from Hampton.

MILITARY TRAINING MAKES BETTER MEN.

Military training is a very important factor in the work of the institute, because it teaches the boys teamwork, acting together in the execution of orders given by a superior officer, whether student or otherwise. To carry out these orders men must exercise obedience and self-control—self-control not only of the body, but also of the mind.

The many exercises connected with military training develop and strengthen the muscles and make for physical fitness.

The idea of orderliness and self-respect which comes through military training is probably more widely taught in this way than through any other medium. Students who have been privileged to receive this instruction bear a distinctive mark.

RESPECT FOR LAW TAUGHT.

When a student is dressed in uniform he seems very proud and conscious of the fact. Having his own reputation as well as that of his company at stake he wants to live up to the very best that is in him.

Respect for law is also another element which enters into the life which is influenced by the right kind of military training. As one travels over the country he sees all about him a lack of due recognition of law. There is no successful management of large groups anywhere unless there is a proper regard for authority, which is the bedrock of the whole structure of national life.

EXTENSION WORK.

J. L. BLAIR BUCK,

Director of Extension Work, Hampton Institute.

Extension work carries the advantages of the school to people who are outside. It aims to aid in the progressive improvement of colored rural communities and schools and to enrich the institute's knowledge of the work of its graduates and the conditions under which they work.

Extension work at Hampton Institute has been carried on through the following channels: (1) By sending out teachers and workers who attend colored school meetings, conventions, and fairs to help carry out their program, and by systematic, informal school visiting; (2) by preparing publications, such as *Hampton Leaflets*, which deal with subjects on which people appear to need help and on which the institute is prepared to furnish expert advice; (3) by displaying educational exhibits at the Virginia State Fair and at county fairs: (4) by conducting "extension schools" in the rural schools of Virginia to aid teachers and school principals in both their intra and extra mural activities; (5) by furnishing pure-bred live stock and poultry to colored farmers of Virginia from the Hampton breeding farms; (6) by employing a colored farm-demonstration agent in Elizabeth City County, the county in which Hampton Institute is located; (7) by giving some financial assistance to the supervisor of negro schools in Virginia for the employment of special supervising teachers; (8) by getting information about the work of Hampton graduates which will be useful in serving them and their work through the institute's placement bureau; (9) by establishing and maintaining close contact with numerous public and private schools in the South; (10) by assisting in the editing and printing of a monthly publication called *Negro Progress Record* as a news letter for the Negro Organization Society of Virginia (the president of which is Maj. Allen W. Washington, commandant of cadets at Hampton Institute), whose motto is: "Better Schools, Better Health, Better Homes, Better Farms"; (11) by sending out educational motion pictures to the colored schools of Virginia; and (12) by sending out traveling libraries to schools or individuals for a small rental fee.

TEACHERS STUDY NEGRO LIFE.

It has been the policy to use the teachers and workers who are regularly employed by other departments of the school for most of the extension work rather than to employ a number of full-time workers in the extension department.

The variety of extension work calls for the services, for a brief length of time, of experts in teaching, cooking, sewing, poultry-raising, care of live stock, gardening, farm engineering, and other fields of practical knowledge.

The teachers are also helped by coming into close touch with actual conditions in the homes and in the schools from which their pupils come. Most of the teachers are not only willing, but also eager to take part in the school's extension work.

STATE AND REGIONAL MOVEMENTS INAUGURATED.

The institute's extension work is guided by the principles of successful extension education. Little good can come of work done in a community before a real desire for that particular work has been created among the people of that community. The people who benefit by extension work, as far as possible, are required to do the work.

Hampton's extension work is closely related to life's problems. It aims to increase the desire for and appreciation of good schools among adults and children.

Several far-reaching movements among colored people in the South, including the farm-demonstration work, the system of supervising industrial teachers, the program of the home-demonstration agents, and the Negro Organization Society of Virginia, have been started by private funds, administered by or created through Hampton Institute, and have finally been given public support.

WHITE AND COLORED CITIZENS KEPT INFORMED.

Throughout Hampton's history the extension work has been the means of keeping the educational staff in close touch with the home life and the occupational life of its graduates.

The institute's educational and financial campaign work has kept Hampton in close touch with the best white people of the country. This campaign work has also spread knowledge of negro progress and has gained support for educational work among negroes.

A FEW LESSONS AT A TIME DRIVEN HOME.

In 1920 a policy was adopted which provided that fair exhibits should deal each year with one or two simple lessons for which there appeared to be great need and that the chief object of each exhibit should be the most thorough teaching of one or two lessons. "How to tell good layers from poor layers in a flock of hens," for example, was an exhibit which attracted many vistors at the Virginia State Fair, held regularly in Richmond.

REACHING THE PEOPLE THROUGH EXTENSION SCHOOLS.

A brief outline of a three-day extension course, conducted in a rural four-room county training school in Chesterfield county, near Richmond, Va., will illustrate what is meant by the "extension school."

A preliminary survey was made to see the school and community and to discuss with the county superintendent of schools, the farm-demonstration agent, the local school principal, and the supervising industrial teacher, what help was most advisable. A tentative three-day program, based on the needs which had been made known during the preliminary conference, was prepared and sent for suggestions and approval to those who had been consulted in the preliminary conference. Posters were then prepared and sent to interested persons.

The program was based on the needs of the community and was divided into (1) Farmers' Day, (2) Everybody's Day, and (3) Teachers' Day.

The Farmers' Day program consisted of addresses of welcome, a discussion of the value of poultry, a demonstration of how to tell the good layer from the poor layer, and a demonstration in actually building a proper open-front hen house. At the evening meeting there were shown motion pictures on balanced education—training of head, heart, and hand.

The program for Everybody's Day was built around the activities of a mothers' club, which the school principal had been instrumental in starting and which was the most active organization in the community. Speakers discussed the feeding and care of children and the testing of eyes, ears, throat, and nose. The mothers' club prepared and served a luncheon for all the visitors to the conference. The relation of the school to the community was explained, and the responsibility of the parents for giving their children a fair opportunity of securing eight grades of schooling was emphasized.

The program for Teachers' Day was designed to awaken greater professional interest on the part of the teachers in the children and in modern methods of teaching. A demonstration was given to show how the teacher could organize and direct the play of children. The principal of the Whittier Training School at Hampton Institute gave a demonstration in teaching a reading lesson to a second-grade class. The closing meeting made a final, strong appeal to men and women of the community to cooperate with the school principal and teachers in building up both the school and the community.

BREEDING OF GOOD POULTRY AND LIVE STOCK STIMULATED.

For a good many years, Hampton Institute has attempted to place pure-bred poultry, pure-bred hogs, and high-grade dairy calves with-

in the reach of Virginia negro farmers. This work has been done largely through the negro farm-demonstration agents, who have been privileged to get this stock, at about "meat" prices, for the farmers of their several counties.

EDUCATIONAL MOTION PICTURES CARRIED TO RURAL PEOPLE.

Several motion-picture stories of student life at Hampton Institute have been prepared at various times and have been used in publicity work throughout the North or locally at the institute. The extension department has been equipped with a portable projector and a set of storage batteries. This equipment makes it possible for pictures to be carried to remote rural districts where the motion pictures have never been seen.

GENERAL ASPECTS OF GROWTH.

GEORGE P. PHENIX,
Vice Principal, Hampton Institute.

Those who established schools for the negroes in the sixties and afterwards naturally copied the models with which they were familiar. Hampton was no exception. If her work has differed from that of other schools, it is because her founder was familiar in his youth with schools of a different type. In the Hawaiian Islands, where General Armstrong was born, the missionaries had established a type of school in which industrial training and literary training had been happily combined.

The effect of manual labor on character made a profound impression on Armstrong as a youth, and as a man of maturer years he was convinced that a similar type of education was what was most needed by the freedmen. That he had no illusions as to the difficulty of his undertaking there is abundant evidence.

To make his new project succeed General Armstrong had to justify it in the eyes of three groups of people:

(1) The negro race, who would supply the student body;

(2) The white North, who alone of all people of the country were able to finance the venture; and

(3) The white South, who were skeptical as to the value of any kind of education for negroes.

How far this school of a novel type succeeded in this threefold task the following facts suggest.

WORK UNDER SUSPICION.

There is abundant evidence that in the early days the negro regarded Hampton with suspicion. The students and graduates were,

however, effective missionaries of the new idea, and the school has never suffered for students.

In 1872 the numbers had so increased that Army tents were pitched along the shore to take care of the overflow from the dormitories. Tents were in use for several years, and to this day the enrollment has been limited only by the capacity of the buildings.

The average annual enrollment has been as follows: First decade, 220; second decade, 550; third decade, 661; fourth decade, 755, fifth decade, 878.

It is significant that of negro schools of secondary and college grade, established since 1868, nearly a third have the words *industrial* or *agricultural* as a part of their corporate titles, and that the proportion of these schools is highest among those founded by negroes themselves.

FINANCIAL AID FROM THE NORTH.

That the people of the North have believed in the type of training for which Hampton stands is proved by the generous manner in which they have supported it. The average annual current expense of the school has been as follows: First decade, $28,480; second decade, $58,350; third decade, $104,253; fourth decade, $177,722; fifth decade, $283,584.

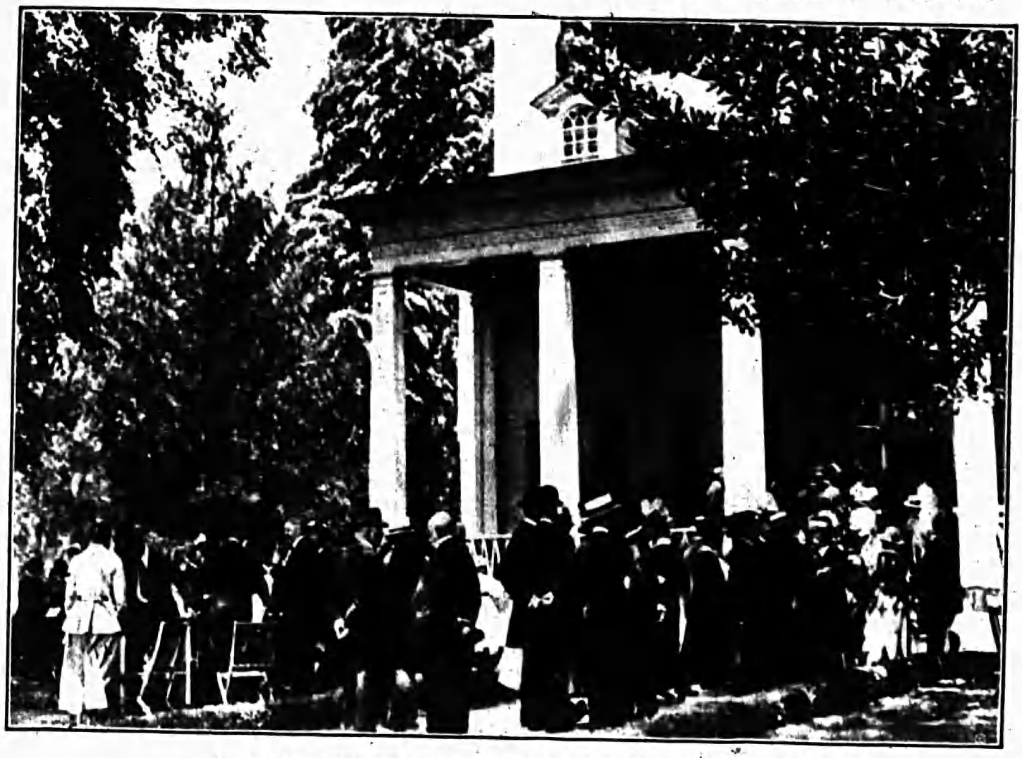
The same friends who have contributed to current expenses have created an endowment fund to assure the permanency of the school. The amount of this fund at the close of the last year of each decade has been as follows: 1878, $65,819; 1888, $157,940; 1898, $708,360; 1908, $1,575,471; 1918, $3,069,207.

SUPPORT OF THE SOUTH.

The sympathy of the white South with Hampton's work was absolutely essential. Sympathy has grown with understanding, and the school to-day enumerates among its loyal friends southern men and women of influence and prominence. The people of Virginia, to a greater extent than the citizens of other Southern States, have had an opportunity to know Hampton's work and influence.

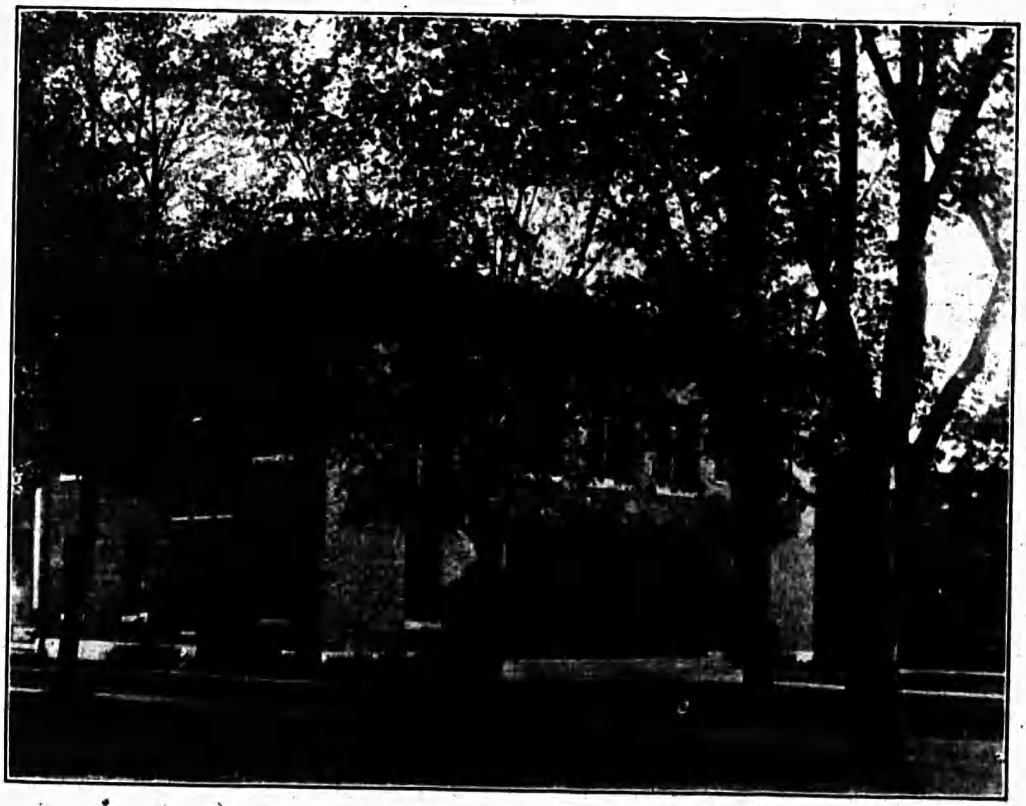
As early as 1874, Doctor Ruffner, a distinguished Virginian and at that time superintendent of public instruction of Virginia, wrote in his annual report: "The prosperity of the institute is amazing, and, what is still more wonderful, it is conducted in such a way as to give satisfaction to all parties North and South."

The financial aid which the Slater fund, the General Education Board, and the Jeanes fund have contributed for negro schools in southern communities has done much to acquaint southern people, especially school men, with this type of education.



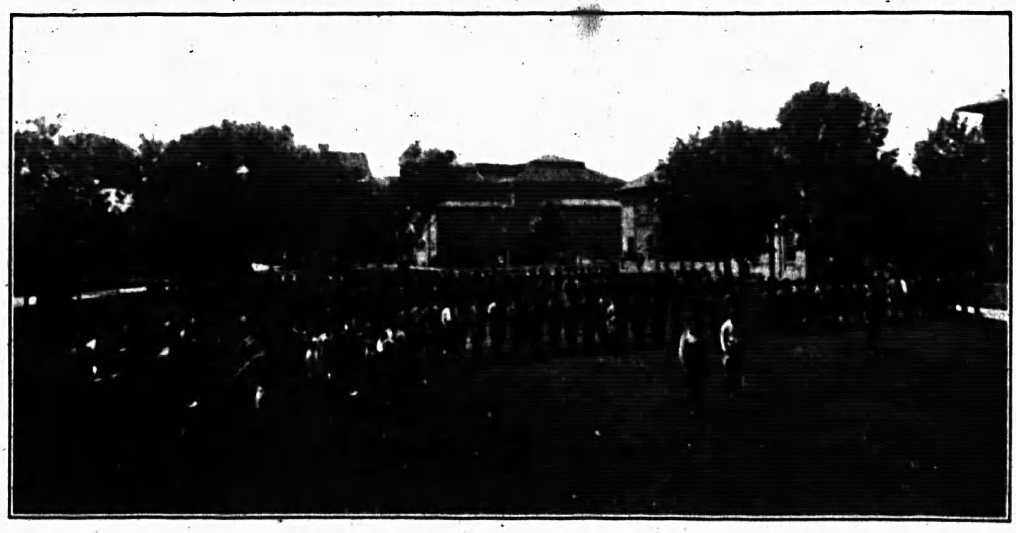
A. THE ANNUAL ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION.

The reception at the residence of the principal. This is attended by many hundreds of visitors, including leaders in education, in church, and in state.



B. CLARKE HALL.

This building, the Hampton Y. M. C. A., was built by student labor.



HAMPTON INSTITUTE BATTALION.

Promptness, alertness, self-control, endurance, and respect for authority are taught.

The interest of the white South in negro schools is growing every year. Indeed, all things considered, it has grown in the past as rapidly as could reasonably be expected. There are many difficulties which persons living outside the South can not comprehend, but these are constantly growing less and will some day cease to exist.

The close of the first half century of Hampton's history finds the relation between the races in the South, the progress of negro education, and the school itself in a condition which the most extreme optimist of 50 years ago could hardly have dared to hope for, and there is every reason for facing the second half century with faith and courage.

THE MUSEUM.

CORA M. FOLSOM,

Curator of Museum, Hampton Institute.

The museum as a depository of valuable curios began when the institute was less than a year old through the generous response made by his mother, then in the Sandwich Islands, to General Armstrong's request for specimens of coral and relics of the old island life. These things, rare enough even then to be considered "museum pieces," had been collected from the different islands of the Micronesian group, each for some special value. Many of these were destroyed by fire in 1879, but enough remained in 1905 to form the nucleus of a valuable collection.

In 1881 General Armstrong made his first visit to the Indian country. While there he was fortunate in being able to purchase several suits of the old-time buckskin costume which could not now be duplicated. Frequent visits later, made by the present curator, have resulted in a fairly comprehensive collection from different tribes, of costumes, ornaments, household utensils, baskets, and some rare old paintings. In 1905, $5,000 was given in the name of Whitney Blake, a former instructor, to prepare a place for these curios, and the old library rooms became "The Blake Indian Museum." Later, Col. E. B. Townsend, Mr. F. C. Briggs, and Mr. Joshua Davis made valuable bequests, and by gift and purchase the school has been constantly adding to its collection. Some good mound-builder implements, among other things, have been acquired.

When Miss Alice M. Bacon, author of several books on Japanese life, returned to this country, she brought back many fine old things. Some of these she loaned to the museum, and at her death she gave almost her entire collection to it.

Articles from China, India, Egypt, Syria, Turkey, and other countries have been given from time to time, until now there is almost no country that has not contributed its mite.

A Philippine collection of about 300 specially selected pieces has been given by Miss Frances Curtis, of Boston. This covers various crafts of many tribes from northern Luzon to the southern islands.

GROWTH OF THE AFRICAN COLLECTION.

When the Rev. William H. Sheppard, an old Hampton student, returned, after 20 years of missionary work among the tribes of the upper Congo, he brought back a large collection made with much discrimination and labor. About 400 pieces from this collection were sold to the institute.

Other missionaries and travelers in Africa have given generously, and so made possible a very inspiring collection, helpful not only to Hampton but to students of African ethnology in other places and to artists in search of new designs and suggestions.

These large exhibits demanded increased space, and three rooms were added in 1918 for their better accommodation, giving a floor space of about 5,400 square feet. The war broke in upon these plans, and as yet no cases have been provided for the new rooms, and a large part of the collection has to be kept in storage, except when taken out for some special occasion.

Each of the 2,000 articles, or sets of articles, is card catalogued with reasonable thoroughness and illustrated in pen and ink and color. A set of reference books is always at hand to render first aid in case of unexpected questions. To make this material serve its best purpose toward broadening the education of the pupils, and in case of the Indian and African exhibits stimulating race pride and understanding, a variety of devices have been tried with more or less success.

COLORED PEOPLE LACK MUSEUM FACILITIES.

Little curios which are familiar to every northern child are unknown to the southern negro and have therefore a peculiar value in his scheme of education. This last statement is also true of the Indian.

Our general plan, made to fit existing conditions, is quite unlike that of the ordinary museum, and to be of the greatest value must have the cooperation of the departments it is designed to help.

One room in the museum is fitted up with lantern and curtain, chairs for a class, and wooden shutters to darken the room by day. Here a class may supplement its study by using pictures which

have been selected from the 6,500 cards and slides classified for the purpose.

A teacher of geography wishing to further illustrate her work on a particular country may bring her class to the museum, show what material exhibits are available, and add to them a selection of pictures or slides, or both.

If a teacher of history wishes to illustrate any special period she may do so with pictures or possibly articles associated with the particular time or event. The same may be done for a class in literature or art.

A telescope that makes the moon and the phases of Venus, the rings of Saturn, and the moons of Jupiter something more than a tale that is told, can be used almost any night when the weather is favorable for out-of-door observation.

A student taking a trade may add to his instruction in the trade school pictures illustrating the manufacture of wire, for instance, or the use of concrete in the building of houses and roads.

The teachers of agriculture find helpful the sets of pictures they have themselves arranged for different branches of their work, and some of the instructors are very happy in their use of this material.

For the home-economics school there are collections of fabrics, embroideries, and laces, shoes and hats, primitive tools and utensils that can be arranged for class work with a little management.

Occasionally we have given exhibits that include customs as well as materials, such as serving Japanese tea or giving little scenes from life in other lands.

In this way, the museum may become not only a place for inclosed exhibits, but a living interest to break the monotony of classroom routine and make a more lasting impression upon the mind of the pupil than is possible to the printed page or even the carefully-chosen word.

THE PUBLICATION OFFICE.

JANE E. DAVIS,

In Charge of Publication Office.

The publication office is a clearing house for the products of the printing office, including (1) *The Southern Workman*, (2) *Hampton Bulletins*—the Catalog, Principal's Report, Treasurer's Report, Summer-School Circular, and occasional bulletins; (3) *Hampton Leaflets* (76 old and 4 new ones annually), covering academic subjects, agriculture, health, hand work in rural schools, miscellaneous, nature study, programs for special occasions, school-and-home-improvement, and southern crops and industries; (4) general school

literature, including reprints from the *Southern Workman*, pamphlets on extension work, sketches of graduates, campaign material, such as appeals and statements about Hampton and its methods and ideals, and pamphlets on race questions.

The publication office also passes on printed matter required by the departments of the institute, including stationery, schedules, blanks, programs, circular letters, invitations, notices, etc., and *The Hampton Student*, which is edited by students.

It is also a center of information for clubs, Sunday schools, and individuals, about Hampton and other industrial schools; about the work of graduates; Armstrong and his methods; and racial questions.

The publication office is the headquarters of traveling libraries for rural teachers.

THE SOUTHERN WORKMAN.

The Southern Workman, an illustrated monthly magazine, was established in January, 1872, by General Armstrong. He made this journal a vehicle to carry his ideas abroad and enlist the interest of all the people he was able to reach. Its audience has increased vastly in size and importance since his day. On account of its studies on race questions it has had a growing circulation in libraries, schools, and other educational organizations.

HAMPTON'S INFLUENCE.

WILLIAM ANTHONY AERY,
Publication Secretary, Hampton Institute.

The effectiveness of the work of Hampton Institute must be judged by the service which its 2,000 graduates and its 8,000 former students have rendered to widely scattered communities, not only throughout the South and West, but throughout the United States.

The sons and daughters of Hampton Institute are at work throughout the United States—and some are even found in Africa, Asia, Europe, and the islands of the sea—giving to people of many races and classes the manifold message of racial cooperation and good will, of "education for life," of self-help, of clean, pure homes, and of self-sacrificing service.

LIFE WORK OF GRADUATES.

A study of the occupations of the negro men graduates shows that negroes have been going into various lines of work, including educa-

tion, farming, trade work, the professions, and business. The detailed figures are given below.

Occupations of Hampton Institute negro men graduates.[11]

Educational workers (not along agricultural or mechanical lines)		110
Agriculturists		86
Teachers	40	
Farmers, gardeners	46	
Tradesmen		181
Teachers of manual training or trades	68	
Following trades as journeymen or contractors	113	
Professional men		124
Business men		34
Clerks, mail carriers, insurance agents, etc		124
Hotel men, railroad employees, laborers, etc		90
Unemployed on account of health		9
Occupations not known		79
Students		37
Dead		285
Grand total		1,159

A similar study of the occupations of Hampton Institute negro women graduates is given below.

Occupations of Hampton Institute negro women graduates.[11]

Unmarried		215
Teachers	157	
Other occupations	52	
Students	6	
Married (housekeepers)		415
Teachers	119	
Not teaching	296	
Married (not housekeepers)		73
Teachers	38	
Not teaching	35	
Occupations not known		36
Dead		154
Grand total		893

These figures are the result of a careful study of the occupations of the graduates according to our latest information, whether it has come directly from the individuals themselves or through reliable reports furnished by others. In the great majority of cases the information dates not further back than 1919. Of those whose present occupation is not known we are in actual communication with many, although for various reasons we are uncertain as to what they are doing at the present time.

[11] As of December, 1921.

In classifying our men graduates we have, as a rule, given the preference to the line of activity which each names as his *principal* occupation. Many combine other work with that occupation.

In addition to principals of public schools or institutions and teachers in such schools there are included under the heading "educational work (not along agricultural or mechanical lines)" school inspectors and supervisors, commandants, and disciplinarians, Y. M. C. A. secretaries and other social workers, librarians, and physical directors. Of these, many, in addition to their teaching, are engaged in farming, trades, or other kinds of work.

THE GRADUATES WORKING IN MANY STATES.

The men and women from Hampton have gone into many lines of work and have scattered themselves broadcast over the United States. The details of the distribution of Hampton graduates, secured through the record office, are given below:

Distribution of Hampton negro graduates.[12]

Alabama	63	New Jersey	62
Arkansas	8	New York	98
California	5	North Carolina	91
Colorado	3	Ohio	30
Connecticut	9	Oklahoma	9
Delaware	8	Pennsylvania	92
District of Columbia	67	Rhode Island	2
Florida	16	South Carolina	43
Georgia	34	South Dakota	1
Idaho	1	Tennessee	9
Illinois	31	Texas	5
Indiana	12	Vermont	2
Iowa	3	Virginia	714
Kansas	5	Washington	1
Kentucky	17	West Virginia	15
Louisiana	4	Wisconsin	2
Maryland	82	Foreign:	
Massachusetts	35	Africa	1
Michigan	15	Canada	1
Mississippi	8	Central America	2
Missouri	17	West Indies	2
Nebraska	2		

These men and women who have gone to these widely scattered States have acted as educational leaven and have quietly influenced a favorable attitude of public opinion toward negroes and Indians. As Virginia has naturally received the greatest number of Hampton graduates, a detailed distribution of more than 700 of these is here given.

[12] As of December, 1921.

Distribution of Hampton graduates in Virginia, by counties.[13]

Accomac	9	Lancaster	7
Albemarle	[14]24	Loudoun	1
Amelia	1	Louisa	3
Amherst	1	Lunenburg	5
Appomattox	1	Madison	1
Arlington	[15]3	Mathews	7
Augusta	4	Mecklenburg	12
Bath	1	Middlesex	3
Bedford	1	Montgomery	2
Botetourt	1	Nansemond	10
Brunswick	5	Nelson	3
Buckingham	3	New Kent	3
Campbell	[16]27	Norfolk	[20]138
Carolina	5	Northampton	22
Charlotte	4	Northumberland	3
Charles City	3	Nottoway	7
Chesterfield	[17]8	Orange	2
Cumberland	4	Pittsylvania	[21]26
Dinwiddie	5	Powhatan	1
Elizabeth City	[18]129	Prince Edward	10
Essex	1	Prince George	2
Fairfax	1	Prince William	4
Fauquier	2	Princess Anne	6
Franklin	1	Pulaski	2
Frederick	5	Roanoke	[22]28
Gloucester	31	Rockbridge	3
Goochland	6	Rockingham	4
Greensville	1	Southampton	[23]7
Halifax	9	Spotsylvania	2
Hanover	6	Surry	2
Henrico	[19]25	Sussex	1
Henry	2	Tazewell	2
Isle of Wight	2	Warwick	[24]34
James City	9	Washington	4
King and Queen	6	Westmoreland	3
King William	3	York	1

THEIR ACTIVITIES IN THE STATE.

Nearly every graduate conducts a Sunday school and many of them are useful as evangelists. Their relation to the people around

[13] As of December, 1921, given by counties.
[14] Includes 14 in Charlottesville.
[15] All in Alexandria not in "Arlington County."
[16] Includes 24 in Lynchburg.
[17] Includes 5 at Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute, Ettricks, Va.
[18] Includes 53 at Hampton Institute; 60 in Hampton and vicinity, and 15 in Phoebus.
[19] All are located in Richmond.
[20] Includes 85 in Norfolk and vicinity; 40 in Portsmouth and vicinity.
[21] Includes 12 in Danville.
[22] Includes 24 in Roanoke.
[23] Includes 4 in Franklin.
[24] Includes 33 in Newport News.

them is not that of a pedagogue to enlightened communities. They are usually the best educated of their society and are leaders of its thought and give it tone by their wisdom and culture. They seldom seek office, but devote themselves to the real welfare of their people. They are civilizers rather than mere teachers.

The graduates generally buy land and have frequent use for their agricultural training. As they can teach usually less than half the year, this practical knowledge is indispensable. Very few take up farming exclusively, as teaching, when it can be had, pays better.

AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION WORK.

A number of graduates have made important contributions to the inauguration and development of the negro farm-demonstration work, which has been thoroughly organized by the States Relations Service of the United States Department of Agriculture throughout the Southern States under the leadership of Dr. A. C. True.

TRAINED NEGROES ADD MILLIONS TO THE WEALTH OF VIRGINIA.

Some 30,000 negro farmers in Virginia under the leadership of a Tuskegee-Hampton graduate are annually influenced to improve their methods of work and secure crop yields.

Thirty-five local negro farm and home demonstration or extension service agents, working in 20-odd counties of Virginia, under the States Relations Service, have brought to thousands of negro farmers and their white neighbors a new vision of farm life, a clearer insight into farming as a business rather than a mere occupation.

PROFITS FROM EXTENSION WORKERS.

Through the work of men trained for special service in agricultural extension service, negro farmers have increased their earning powers by many millions of dollars and have helped to develop their counties and States; negro farmers have increased the average corn yield by more than 10 bushels per acre on demonstration plats; and have added $20,000,000 per year to Virginia's returns on the corn crop. Similar good records have been made in the cultivation of small grains, of hay, forage, and cover crops, and in the development of poultry and live stock.

VIRGINIA NEGROES IMPROVE COMMUNITIES UNDER WISE LEADERSHIP.

Negro farmers and their wives have also been taught the value of community development through common sense and thoroughgoing organization. They have been taught to paint and white-

wash their homes; to build sanitary outhouses; screen windows and doors against flies and mosquitoes; remove the breeding places of injurious insects; install water systems; plant home gardens; and conserve food.

Negroes have been encouraged and taught to save their money, open bank accounts, buy labor-saving devices for their homes and farms, to own the land which they cultivate, and to mix brains with farming and all other forms of work.

The progress made by 826 negro farmers in Nottoway County, Va., during the seven years proves that it pays to mix brains with farming.[25] Land values and crop yields increased at a rapid rate after the negro farm-demonstration agents began working among negro farmers.

Land that produced, before the coming of the farm-demonstration agents, 10, 12, and 15 bushels of corn to the acre came to yield within seven years 25, 30, 50, and even as high as 76 bushels of corn to the acre—the result of applying more thought to farm problems, more attention to details, more skill in the selection of seed, better preparation of a seed bed, and correct methods of soil tillage.

It is safe to say that in Virgina the negro farm-demonstration agents have helped the farmers increase their yields 50, 100, and even 300 per cent.

The result of the farm-demonstration work and the practical application of the Hampton idea of education has been the promotion of friendly relations between white and colored people. The work that the colored people did in improving corn yields, increasing the fertility of the land, improving live stock, building schoolhouses, improving churches, and enriching home life, has won for the negroes the respect and good will of many white people.

INFLUENCE OF BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

General Armstrong was accustomed to say that if Hampton had sent out only Booker Washington it would have paid back to the people of this country an equivalent for the thousands of dollars they have paid into its Treasury.

When one considers what Doctor Washington[25] accomplished through the establishment of the Tuskegee Institute since 1881; the tremendous influence that he exerted upon his own people in favor of handwork; the impetus he gave to land buying by negroes through his farmers' conference and the Tuskegee graduates; the help he rendered since 1900 through the National Negro Business League in right methods of business; the establishment of

[25] Doctor Washington died in November, 1915.

kindly relations between whites and blacks through his southern campaigns, when he addressed hundreds of thousands of both races; and his education of the North as to the possibilities of the negro, one can but feel that General Armstrong was right in his estimate of "value received."

SOME PROBLEMS WHICH HAMPTON INSTITUTE IS FACING.

Like all other industrial or vocational schools, Hampton Institute has had to face constantly the problem of training men and women who could influence along constructive lines the formation of a sound public opinion with reference to the needs of great masses of people who must be trained to earn a living and to live a happy, normal, useful life.

Doctor Hanus in his study formulated the following needs:[20] (1) Plans for helping graduates, especially men, to find better incomes and more attractive conditions in the rural districts and to resist the economic and social tide bearing the negro population toward the cities; (2) increased supervision of trade graduates during their first years out at work; (3) training more teachers of agriculture; (4) placing more emphasis upon professional training for those who enter teaching; (5) giving to women training in business principles and methods; (6) placing more emphasis on taste in home furnishing and on modern home sanitation; (7) giving more systematic instruction in the principles and methods of social science; (8) extending the system of business training; (9) furnishing more general post-school placement guidance; (10) providing rural visitation by Hampton teachers; and (11) helping agricultural graduates to get some land and a real start.

[20] Some of these needs Hampton Institute was meeting in 1922.

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